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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THE Prince and Princess of Wales continue to be received with the greatest warmth, and even enthusiasm, whenever they appear in public in Denmark. Although their visit is a strictly private one, and has no political signification, it is impossible not to attach some meaning to the popular greeting by which they have been welcomed. It indicates, no doubt, principally, the personal popularity of the reigning family, but it also shows that the Danes still cling to their independent national existence, and are by no means inclined to submit to absorption by the other Scandinavian kingdom. Had any disposition of this kind existed, it must have made itself felt on an occasion of this kind, in coolness and indifference to the joys or sorrows of the royal household. That the people still sympathise heartily with their King and his children, notwithstanding the misfortunes of the country, is a sign that there is no wavering in their allegiance to Christian IX.,—no inclination to cast on the monarch the blame of reverses which he has been powerless to avert. For Englishmen, the most interesting incident of the visit is one which occurred on the arrival of the royal party at Bernsdorff. In reply to the welcome which they met, the King assured his subjects that his daughter's heart was one with theirs, and that it had felt and bled for all their sorrows. This is, of course, nothing more than might have been expected, and, had his Majesty stopped there, his speech would have excited little attention. He went on, however, to say that the Prince of Wales shared the feelings of his wife, and that he too sympathised with Denmark under the grievous wrongs to which she has been subjected. We cannot avoid accepting as perfectly authentic a statement so publicly made in the presence of the Prince of Wales. It amounts, indeed, to no more than we believed before; but at the same time it is satisfactory to know, on unexceptionable authority, that the heir-apparent to the throne thinks and feels like the great body of his countrymen, and that he at any rate is not drawn by any German connections into predilections at variance with those of the English people. The King's announcement, which was no doubt made with the consent of his Royal Highness, naturally excited an enthusiastic response; and, whatever resentment may still be entertained towards Great Britain for the part she has played in recent events, no portion of it will henceforth be visited upon the Prince of Wales.

The negotiations between the German Powers and Denmark are not yet concluded. The financial difficulty still remains to be surmounted, but it is understood that the principle of an arrangement has been laid down. As we anticipated last week, there will be a compromise. The

extravagant pretensions of Prussia will not be pressed; but on the other hand, Denmark will satisfy the claims of the Duchies upon the public property of the kingdom by the payment of a round sum of money. Unfair, and even extortionate, as this may be, it is probably the best settlement that could be hoped for; and it is certainly one to which M. von Bismarck would never have consented, had not the Austrian statesmen become tired of supporting him in opposition to the public opinion of Europe. If we may trust the statements of well-informed correspondents, this is not the only check which the Prussian Minister has received; for we are told that, in consequence of the opposition which he has met with at Vienna, he has been obliged to give up all hopes of annexing the Duchies. If, however, Rendsburg receives a mixed garrison of Prussians and Slesvig-Holsteiners, and Kiel and other places on the North Sea are made Federal ports, the hold of the North German Power upon the newly-conquered territory will be hardly less complete than it would be if she became its nominal possessor. It is probable, however, that nothing is as yet settled on this point, and that the fate of the Duchies will ultimately turn upon the issue of negotiations which are pending between their "liberators" upon more than one important subject.

We have now before us the full text of the despatch recently addressed by Earl Russell to M. von Bismarck, as well as the note to which it is a reply. We are no admirers of the noble Earl's diplomatic style; and we have often wished that he was less sparing of his gifts as a letter-writer. But we must confess that we do not think he deserves, on this occasion, the strictures to which he has been subjected by the Continental press. It must be observed, in the first place, that the noble Earl did not volunteer his recent communication. It was called forth by a despatch which, although courteous in style, was in substance nothing less than an insult. After what has occurred, it was little short of a *mauvaise plaisanterie* for M. von Bismarck to ask the English Government "to recognise the moderation and placability which have been displayed by the two German Powers;" nor could the flesh and blood of the least pugnacious foreign secretary be expected to stand the assertion that Austria and Prussia were obliged to insist on the cession of the three Duchies in deference to that national feeling of Germany which they have persistently set at defiance whenever it suited their convenience. We say nothing as to the glaring hypocrisy of the assertions that the German Powers "did not wish to dismember the ancient and venerable Danish monarchy," and that "it depends upon the Danish Government and people whether the national and peaceful relations with its southern neighbours shall be re-established, and whether

unrestrained intercourse shall become a source of well-being and prosperity on both sides." As well might the wolf allege that it was optional with the lamb whether they should or should not remain on terms of amity. Thus challenged, Earl Russell had a perfect right to reassert his opinion that the war carried on by Austria and Prussia against Denmark was unjust and unnecessary; nor, when "national feelings" had been so pointedly referred to by his correspondent, can we wonder that he was tempted to retort "that a considerable number, perhaps 200,000 or 300,000 of the loyal Danish population, are transferred to a purely German state." His observation, "that the wording of the 1st article of the preliminaries of peace fully admits the right of Christian IX. to rule over the Duchies of Holstein, Schleswig and Lauenburg, for if they were not his to hold they could not be his to give away," is no doubt unpleasantly caustic; nor could it have been agreeable to M. von Bismarck to receive a suggestion that the people of the Duchies should be consulted as to the choice of their foreign sovereign. But all we can say is, that the Prussian Minister brought it all upon himself. As he chose to enter the epistolary lists with the noble Earl in a manner entirely gratuitous and uncalled-for, he has no right to complain of the reply he has received. And as there was no practical object to be either served or defeated by his lordship writing or letting it alone, we see no reason to regret that he has on this occasion spoken his mind with characteristic plainness. He may not be the fittest man to utter them, but the sentiments and opinions he has expressed are those of the country generally.

The Emperor of Russia has issued five decrees, containing a series of liberal measures relative to public instruction in Poland, the creation of an university at Warsaw, and the establishment of numerous superior, middle, and primary schools, and of a free school for women. The Poles are, moreover, to preserve their national language, while the penal code is to be mitigated, and corporal punishment to be abolished. No doubt these are intended as measures of conciliation, and are an attempt to improve the position of the imperial government in respect to the public opinion of Europe. But we do not believe they will have the slightest effect in either way. It is absurd to suppose that the hatred entertained by the Poles for their Muscovite rulers can be conjured away by the best of schools, or the most perfectly-organised university. They want nothing and will accept nothing from the Russians—except their absence. Nor will anyone else forget the mode in which the late rebellion was provoked, the cruelty with which it was suppressed, and the wholesale deportations to Siberia by which it has been followed, because the Czar who has shot or banished the parents professes to take a philanthropic interest in the education of the children.

The ministerial crisis in Spain has terminated—for the present—by the return of Narvaez to power. The re-appearance of this man on the political stage cannot be seen with any satisfaction. He played an evil part in some of the worst days which Spain has recently known. He has never yet taken office but to suppress such liberties as he found his country in possession of. His name is identified with violence and oppression of the grossest kind. Moreover, he is the close ally of Queen Christina, and it is understood that if he retains power this unprincipled and intriguing woman will, before long, return to the country where her talents for mischief were formerly so freely exercised. The new Cabinet includes several ministers so thoroughly unpopular that revolutionary disturbances were deemed the probable consequence of their appointment. We hear already of combinations and alliances for the overthrow of the new Government, which possesses few or no elements of stability. It is probably destined to a very short existence, but at the same time it may last quite long enough to do a good deal of harm. We fear that it would be quite absurd to expect any good from the men of whom it is composed.

The Emperor Napoleon has at last grown tired of maintaining the temporal power of the Pope by the soldiers of France. He has probably been long disgusted by the use which has been made of that power while under his protection; nor can he have failed to see that a prolonged continuance of the present state of things endangered the very existence of the Italian kingdom. Whatever may be his motives, it seems certain that a convention has been signed between himself and Victor Emmanuel, under which France engages at once to withdraw a portion of her troops

from Rome, and to recall the remainder within two years. The parties to the convention at the same time bind themselves neither to attack the Pope, nor to suffer any attack to be made upon him from the interior of his dominions. Upon the face of this document, therefore—if its terms are correctly reported to us—the only change will be in the power by whom the Pope is to be protected; since the Italian Government engages, so far as words go, to do for his Holiness all that the Emperor of France now does. But we need hardly say that the actual state of things will be something very different. The Pope, dependent as he will be upon the Government of Italy, must assume towards it an attitude very different from that which he has held up to the present time; for although it may be bound to protect him against anybody and everything, it is pretty certain that such a duty will only be fulfilled within certain limits. Nor, indeed, is it likely that anything which his Holiness may do can permanently maintain (although a prudent course may prolong) the temporal power. We will not say that there is a secret understanding between the sovereigns of France and Italy, that the latter shall at some favourable opportunity seize the coveted prize; but it is easy to see what must be the inevitable result of an arrangement which confides to Italians the duty of keeping themselves out of their own capital. In the meantime, the seat of Government is to be removed from Turin to Florence, apparently for the purpose of enabling the French Government to represent to its subjects, that Italy has renounced Rome as her capital. Of course everyone knows that she has done and will do nothing of the kind. She must, indeed, have Rome sooner or later, because that is the only city to which all others will yield their claims, to become the metropolis of the country. It is only in the presence of Rome that the provincial jealousies of Piedmontese, Milanese, Tuscans, and Neapolitans are stilled. The step which has just been taken is clearly the beginning of the end; and that it is so will afford to nearly all Englishmen an amount of gratification only less than that which it will give to the Italians.

It is impossible—nor have we any desire—to deny that the capture of Atlanta reflects great credit upon the generalship of Sherman. No Federal commander has accomplished a more brilliant feat since the commencement of the war. Whether it will be attended with any important results remains, however, to be seen. This at least is clear, that for the present Sherman is in no condition to push his advantage, since we find that after reconnoitering General Hood's new position at Lovejoy-station, he declined to assail it, and retired to Atlanta. However, the advantage he has gained is a very considerable one; and his occupation of so advanced a position in their territory must cause considerable embarrassment to the Confederates. There is little or nothing of importance reported from other quarters. Both the armies in the neighbourhood of Richmond appear to be quite inactive. Grant did indeed shell Petersburg by way of celebrating the occupation of Atlanta, but we do not hear that he did any mischief; and, so far as we can judge, he has entirely given up the idea of taking that place. He still holds on to the Weldon-railway, but he does not seem to have made any attempt to recover that portion of the road from which his troops were lately driven. When the last mail sailed there was a report from New York that Mobile had fallen, but we are not disposed to credit this story. With regard to what is going on in the Shenandoah valley, all that can be said is that we know little, and that that little is not intelligible.

The principal piece of political news that has reached us within the last few days is McClellan's acceptance of his nomination as a candidate for the presidency. The contest between him and Mr. Lincoln, therefore, has now fairly commenced, and for some time to come we may expect to hear of little but the varying prospects of the champions of the Republican or Democratic parties. The capture of Atlanta has undoubtedly favoured Mr. Lincoln at the outset of the campaign, and if it should turn out that Mobile has fallen, we may expect to find a marked decline in the Northern desire for peace. On the other hand, any reverse will benefit McClellan in an equal degree. There will, we dare say, be the usual amount of stump-oratory, of intriguing, and of electioneering artifice; but the result of this presidential contest will, after all, be mainly decided by the fortune of war. This, at all events, is plain, that peace is not likely to be attained, either under McClellan or Lincoln, so long

as fortune favours the Federal arms. It is, we believe, quite true that a large portion of the population is heartily sick of the contest, and is quite willing to recognize the independence of the South. But, unfortunately, the lovers of peace are deficient in moral courage, or at any rate in the noisy demonstrativeness which seems requisite to produce an effect in America. That section, even of the Democratic party, which is most active, vigorous, and therefore influential, is not as yet disposed to give up its old dreams; and, in deference to their opinions, McClellan has felt bound to declare the "re-establishment of the Union to be indispensable, and to be pursued at all hazards." For the present, therefore, the voice of both parties is for war; nor while war promises to be successful, is either likely to make peace upon terms which will be accepted by the South. The practical difference between them lies in the amount of pressure which is requisite for their conversion to really pacific views. Believing that the Democrats are likely to prove far more reasonable—or squeezeable—under misfortune, than are the Republicans, we should rejoice to see McClellan at the White House. But, after all, the South must win freedom and independence by the sword: it will not gain them from the justice or common sense of either of the northern parties.

THE COMMERCIAL POLICY OF AUSTRIA.

THERE is scarcely any country in Europe which possesses in a more ample degree the elements of material prosperity than does the Austrian empire. Although the dozen kingdoms or provinces of which it consists are not equally favoured, it may be said generally of them that they enjoy a fine climate and have a fertile soil. Almost all the agricultural products of Europe can be raised there with facility and in abundance. There are vast tracts on which rich crops of wheat and other corn can be grown. In other parts of the empire are extensive plains suitable to the rearing and pasturage of cattle. The vineyards of Hungary yield an almost inexhaustible supply of excellent wine. Tobacco can be cultivated with advantage; and amongst other exports which the empire might furnish, in exchange for the commodities she requires, are wool, hemp, flax, drugs, dyes, tallow, and minerals. But with all these advantages at their command, the population is poor and the country singularly backward. There are rich noblemen and rich manufacturers, but the mass of the people have hard work to keep their heads above water. The financial condition of Austria is one of almost permanent embarrassment. Trade is confined within the narrowest limits, and is carried on in the most clumsy and inconvenient manner. It shows little or no tendency to expansion, and although in the very centre of Europe, Austria lies almost as completely outside the tide of commerce as did China and Japan until very recently. If there is one country with which, more than another, she might have commercial relations of the greatest value, it is England. For while we require the food and the raw materials which she produces so abundantly, we could supply to her population clothing, agricultural implements, machinery, and other manufactured articles, far more cheaply than they can be made at home. It is certain, as Mr. Fane remarks in his able report on the commerce of Austria, that "if international trade were not restricted by unwise legislation, a rapid expansion would be given to those narrow commercial relations which now subsist between Great Britain and the empire." How trifling those relations are at present may be judged from the following facts, which we take from the same report:—"The value of British exports to Austrian territories, in 1862, was £787,058. In 1863 it slightly exceeded £1,000,000 sterling. That is to say, Austria, with a population of about 35,000,000 souls, takes from us less than one-eighth part of what is taken by France; considerably less than one-fifth of what is taken by Italy; less than one-third of what is taken by Spain; not quite one-half of what is taken by Belgium; and something less than what is taken by the kingdom of Denmark." The cause of this state of things is obvious enough. Protection flourishes in Austria as it flourishes nowhere else, except in the Federal States of North America. The insane desire to sustain manufactures for which the country is not adapted, prevents those ameliorations of the tariff which would infallibly lead to a large export of agricultural produce. The necessities of the Government have, of late years, compelled it to resort to excessive taxation, which has fallen with crushing weight upon restricted industry and fettered trade. Instead of seeing that the true course was to remove the pressure from the springs of industry, and thus to

develop its elasticity, the statesmen of Vienna have listened to the interested remonstrances of the highly protected manufacturers, who contend that the prosperity of the State depends upon their own, and that in their ruin rich sources of public revenue and a large capacity to sustain future taxation would be destroyed.

It does not appear that any effort has been wanting, on the part of our Government or our diplomatists, to remove the restrictions which impede trade between England and Austria. According to Mr. Fane, proposals of a practical character were submitted to the Austrian Government so far back as the summer of 1862, and there then seemed some disposition to give them a favourable consideration. Unfortunately, at that very moment the commercial treaty between France and Prussia was concluded, and its immediate effect was to put an end to the negotiations with our own Government. That treaty does not establish perfect free trade, because it undoubtedly sanctions the imposition of duties for purposes other than those of revenue. But it is, nevertheless, a great step in the right direction, and it is one which will, doubtless, involve a still further advance at no very distant period. Were it carried out by the States of the Zollverein while Austria remained outside that body, the latter State saw that she would find herself invested by a free-trade coalition which would condemn her to complete commercial isolation in Germany; and she not unnaturally apprehended that political and social estrangement might follow the alienation of material interests. If Austria had been ready to abandon her protective policy, she might, by accepting this treaty, have removed any obstacle to her entrance into the Zollverein. But if (as was the case) she was not prepared to go so far, her only course was to suspend any commercial arrangement until her relations with Germany were clearly defined. This was the course she adopted, and the negotiation with England was accordingly broken off. She then sought to enter the Zollverein, declaring that she was prepared to adopt, in the main, the existing tariffs of the League, and eventually to co-operate in liberalizing them. If her proposition had been assented to, she would have acquired the power of opposing the adoption, by the Zollverein, of the Franco-Prussian Treaty. This did not escape the attention of the Prussian Government, which had, moreover, political reasons for rejecting the request of the South German Power. Accordingly, the propositions of Austria were declined, and a correspondence of a somewhat acrimonious character ensued and is still pending. The present position of the question is very clearly stated by Mr. Fane, in the elaborate and able report to which we are so much indebted. While Prussia wishes to reconstruct the Zollverein at the close of the present League in 1865, on the basis of her treaty with France—that is, substantially on Free-trade principles—Austria proposes to become a member of the body on conditions which she has lately specified, and which involve the maintenance of very high protective duties. The best way of exhibiting the difference between the present commercial policies of the two principal German States will probably be, to compare the duties on a few articles, as they would be levied under the Franco-Prussian treaty, and under the tariff suggested by Austria. On the commoner sorts of cottons the new Austrian tariff proposes a duty of £3, the Prussian tariff one of 30s. per centner; on fine sorts the proposed Austrian duty is £7. 10s., the Prussian £4. 10s. The proposed Austrian duty on fine sorts of linens is £5 per centner, the Prussian from 30s. to £3; on superfine the former is £15, the latter £3. On the common sorts of silk manufactures the proposed Austrian duty is £7. 10s., and on fine sorts £15, the corresponding Prussian duty rising from £4. 10s. to £6. Still highly protectionist as is the projected Austrian tariff, the duties which would be imposed under it are, in many instances, far lower than those which exist at present. "Hence it is regarded by a large class in Austria as representing the price, involving heavy sacrifices, which they are prepared to pay for admission into the Zollverein, and if that condition be not fulfilled, it is by no means certain that they would agree to the same terms for any less equivalent."

It may, we think, be safely assumed that the entrance of Austria into the Zollverein will be found impracticable. In that case there are said to be two courses which she may adopt. She may either endeavour to form a new commercial League of her own with such of the members of the existing Zollverein as are indisposed to adopt the terms of the Franco-Prussian treaty; or she may attempt to negotiate a new commercial treaty with the Zollverein, to replace that which expires at the end of next year. Mr. Fane is of opinion that there is little or no probability of her succeeding in breaking up the Zollverein. He apparently thinks that, however much they may grumble,

the States which are favourable to a Protectionist policy will give in when the decisive moment arrives, and that the present Customs League will be reconstituted in its integrity, in 1865, on the basis of the Franco-Prussian treaty. To the second course we have mentioned, there is a serious obstacle in the 31st clause of this treaty, "which embodies 'the most favoured nation clause' in favour of France, and would bar Prussia from conceding such exclusive privileges as Austria enjoys under the treaty of 1853." Some think that this difficulty may be got over by an arrangement between Prussia and France, but we scarcely see any ground for such an opinion, since neither of these Powers have any interest in extricating Austria from embarrassments of her own creation. The position of Austria in 1865 is, therefore, likely to be one of extreme difficulty. She is then threatened with that complete commercial isolation from the rest of Germany, of which she has already shown herself so apprehensive. We cannot regret this. More than the statesmen of any other country, those of Austria require the stern teaching of misfortune. More than any others they are impervious to reasoning, and obstinate in declining to benefit by the experience of other countries. In this instance, however, they faithfully represent the opinions of their countrymen, who are thoroughly wedded to Protectionist principles. The commercial classes at any rate seem at present utterly averse to free trade, and shudder at the very idea of seeing their industry exposed to healthy competition. They are convinced that if the barriers which at present shut them out were removed, English manufactures would flood the country; and they forget, or choose to ignore, the fact, that if these manufactures were imported, they must be paid for in Austrian produce. The agricultural population, whose interests are sacrificed by the present system, have but little means of making their views tell upon the Government, even if we suppose them to be sufficiently enlightened to perceive the cause of their present depressed condition. We cannot, therefore, venture to indulge in any sanguine hope of a speedy amelioration of the Austrian tariff, unless its practical inconveniences are brought home to the influential classes in the sharpest manner. It seems probable for some time longer that the resources of this rich and fertile country will be undeveloped,—that her trade will continue stagnant, as it is at present,—that she will continue to stagger under a weight of taxation which might, under a better system, be easily borne—in order that a few manufacturers may make large fortunes, and that she may boast the existence of certain rickety but pampered branches of industry, which she would be far better without.

ASSIMILATION OF THE LAWS OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

EVERY now and again the attention of Englishmen is being forcibly directed to the present state of the law of Scotland; sometimes to its incongruities, sometimes to its uncouth technical phraseology, sometimes to the prolixity of its forms of procedure, and always to its wide differences, whether in principle, pleading, or practice, from the law of England. That attention should be so directed is but the natural and inevitable consequence of the commercial and social relations existing between the two countries. The question invariably asked by everybody is, "Why may not the two legal systems be assimilated?" The expediency of such an assimilation is acknowledged by everyone, and must be obvious to all. There can be no question but that it is in the highest degree desirable that the laws that prevail at the one end of the island of Great Britain should be the same as those that prevail at the other. The inconveniences arising from the existing state of matters are almost intolerable. In England, for instance, Scotch laws are considered as those of a foreign state, and, surprising though it may seem, receive not one jot more respect or consideration than would the laws of Dahomey, if it has any. In Scotland, again, the laws of England are in the same way regarded as those of a foreign country. By way of illustration, let it be supposed that a London tradesman obtains a judgment at Westminster against any debtor, English or Scotch, and that the debtor thereupon removes his quarters to Scotland. The English judgment would not be recognised in Scotland; and before any of the legal measures for compelling payment could be taken in that country, a new judgment would have to be obtained from the "Court of Session." This is but one of a thousand similar grievances that ought to be put to rights. The list might be multiplied indefinitely. It is almost superfluous to comment on the expense which Scotch litigation entails (an expense which too many English merchants know by experience), or on the tediousness

and delays which are inseparable from it. We already hear too much of these. With what a weary slowness did the Yelverton case drag itself along before that mysterious individual the "Lord Ordinary;" and how every one wished it could have come before the courts at Westminster, where it might have been disposed of in a few months. The public astonishment and disgust which was at that time excited by the prolixity of the Scotch procedure, is now again aroused by what we may be permitted to call its presumption. "Arrestments, *jurisdictionis fundandæ causâ*, having been used," it has stretched out its talons and literally clawed in the *Saturday Review* to answer for a libel against Miss Longworth. Well may it be asked,—“What has the cause of action to do with Scotland?” The *locus* of the wrong is England; the defendants—we beg pardon the defenders—are in England; Miss Longworth herself is an Englishwoman. As well might the action have been commenced at the Cape of Good Hope. This "arrestment *jurisdictionis fundandæ causâ*" is a means whereby the Scotch Court of Session attempts to make the whole universe subject to its jurisdiction. It is only necessary that the "defender" have a sum of money (however small) owing to him in Scotland. Upon this debt the Court of Session pounces, "arrests" it, and then deceives itself into the belief that it has got the defender in person safely bottled up to await the judgment of the court. But it is easy to understand why Miss Longworth should prefer to bring her action in Scotland and not in England. The severity with which Scotch juries are in the habit of visiting the sins of an erring newspaper is notorious. The *Scotsman* had to pay Mr. Duncan McLaren £400 for calling him by what one cannot help thinking was a very harmless *soubriquet*. We manage these things better in England, and Miss Longworth's advisers know it.

A writer in the *Times* on the subject of Scotch law reform, signing himself "A Scottish Magistrate," attempts once more to call public attention to the expediency of assimilating the laws of the two countries. He strikes a key-note which one is almost tired of hearing struck so often. Nobody ever appears to catch the note and join in the tune. The note so struck is left to die a natural death; but, phoenix-like, it invariably rises or is raised again after a time—perhaps in another quarter and from other lips. Yet still it is the same old sound. Now, since all acknowledge the expediency of assimilating the laws of England and Scotland, how comes it that this key-note has so often to be struck in vain, and how is it that so little real progress is made towards the desired assimilation? *Causa est impromptu*. The difficulty in the way is as to which of the two countries is to assimilate its laws to those of the other. It is all well and good to talk about assimilation; but *who* is to assimilate? The Scotch will have it that *their* laws are better than those of England; and they accordingly wait for us to assimilate our laws to theirs. It need hardly be said that the English act on precisely the same view. This is the real secret of the stand-still. Indeed, not only do the Scotch think their laws the better of the two, but they actually glory in the idea that the English are gradually assimilating their laws to those of the Scotch. Hear an eminent Scotch judge—the late "Lord" Cockburn—writing in the *Edinburgh Review* of January, 1846:—"The improvements thus introduced or recommended in England amount in a really surprising number of instances to little else than to an approximation to the law of Scotland. Not that the law of Scotland has been often avowedly taken as the type; on the contrary, nothing is more curious than the composure with which all allusion to the law, even when it is copied, is avoided." It is but justice to the Scotch to say that this almost ridiculous feeling is not universal; and that, within the last quarter of a century, some little progress has been made in the assimilating of the laws—or at least in paving the way for assimilation—particularly in the branch of mercantile law. Nevertheless, what has already been done is but as a drop in the bucket.

The law reform which is more immediately required in Scotland is the simplification of its forms of procedure. Scotland wants something in the nature of a Common Law Procedure Act. Its "multiplepointings," and its "augmentations" and "localities," its "declarators," its "count and reckonings," and what not, have all to be simplified, and especially in their nomenclature. It is required to reduce the time necessary for obtaining a judgment in the Court of Session from two years to two months, and the cost to a tenth part of its present amount. The "Lords Ordinary" have to be transferred to another sphere of usefulness. When all this has been accomplished, *then* attention may, with greater prospect of good results, be directed to the mending of the laws themselves.

For, how little utility is there in making good laws, when the legal machinery by which they are administered remains bad and spoils their excellence? The Scotch seem to be themselves convinced of this, and they some time ago conceived a proposed "Court of Session Bill," the object of which is to abolish almost entirely their present forms of procedure and to substitute forms as nearly as possible identical with that introduced by the English Common Law Procedure Acts. This bill was introduced into the House of Commons in the session of 1863, but was very suddenly withdrawn, and it has not been heard of since on this side of the border. The author of "Coningsby" says, that when the House of Lords succeed in passing a bill, they cackle over it in their pride like so many geese when one of them lays an egg. The Scotch—if we may be pardoned for borrowing the simile—have been cackling over their little bill ever since it came into existence, and they have been doing nothing else than cackling. The advocates—that is, the bar—first enjoyed a hearty cackle; then the W.S.'s had their cackle; afterwards the S.S.C.'s mustered their strength and had a little cackle too; and by-and-by the country at large had a discordant cackle also. Then, having enjoyed their individual cackles, these various cacklers began to cackle all together, and so they have cackled on till now. But when is the cackling to cease and the bill to be introduced into Parliament in earnest and allowed to pass into law? Next session, it is to be hoped, though the prospect of its speedy passing into law looks somewhat doubtful. It is to be feared that the moral courage of the Scotch will fail them when the parting scene arrives, and it becomes necessary to take a last fond look of their dear old antiquated "condescendences" and "defences." Let us live in the hope, however, that this, the first important step towards the assimilation of the laws, will not be abandoned, and that the proposed bill will next session be among the first to be brought in.

POOR CURATES.

THE poverty of hardworking clergymen is a subject much older even than the present generation, and one which runs some risk of becoming a conventional commonplace. Not long ago, an ingenious writer argued at some length to prove that clergymen must expect to be poor, and had no business on earth to complain of it. Ought not an enthusiastic missionary, he asked, to be willing to sacrifice a matrimonial life of ease in Heaven's cause? There can be no doubt that, in theory, every one ought always in such a cause to sacrifice everything. Earthly enjoyments are but dross; and all Christians (not to speak only of curates), on abstract principles of reasoning, ought to be only anxious to give up all their property to feed the poor. The fallacy of the reasoning consists in supposing that clergymen usually enter, or are expected by the Church to enter, on their profession in the guise of missionary enthusiasts. Vows of poverty and chastity are nowhere required at the hands of a candidate for ordination; and the candidate might reasonably complain of being expected hereafter cheerfully to perform more than he has ever been asked to promise. All sound argument is clearly the other way. It may be presumed that the Church, on so solemn an occasion as that of the ordination of her own clergy, asks for what she thinks necessary at their hands; and if she does not dictate to them a surrender of civic and domestic life, it is for some excellent reason of her own. Such a reason may easily be found by a little reflection. By placing a moderate limit to her exactions, she enlists a number of active and energetic servants, who are ready to give up something for her, though they might be scarcely able or willing to sacrifice everything. It is begging the entire question to say that men who are not equal to trampling all social and domestic feelings under foot are incapable of serving Heaven properly in orders. One might as well say that nobody who would not face a den of lions with the cheerfulness of an early Christian could make a good churchwarden. Why is a man disqualified for teaching spiritual or moral lessons to his fellow-creatures because he retains a natural desire to get on in life and to settle his children in the world? There are a great many admirable reasons why he should not be so disqualified. First and foremost is the difficulty of raising men on such terms at all. Secondly comes the still more difficult consideration whether it is worth while making men promise, under the influence of religious excitement, what they may bitterly regret during the rest of their lives when the excitement is past. As we have said, the Church of England apparently thinks that it is not, and sensible people ordinarily

believe that the Church of England is wise and right in her opinion.

The real question accordingly is a simple one. What is the nature of the compact made by clergymen at the time of their ordination with the body of the community that ordains them? The Church of England has a right to the full bond, but not a tittle more. We shall see presently what in their turn they have a right to expect from the Church of England. Curates, then, do not promise when they are ordained that they will be content to be always poor. They do not engage that they will not repine if after thirty or forty years of hard work they find themselves still in the receipt of a pittance. They do not vow that they will not have a dozen children each, or that they will resign all anxiety about the future of their children as soon as they are born. It is not uncommon to hear the observation that poor clergymen with large families have only to blame their own imprudence if they live a life of pressure. They ought not to have married at all unless they had means to support the burden of a household. Even admitting the fact, we might fairly contend that it is, after all, irrelevant to the argument. As a rule, individuals might in most cases ensure themselves against the hardship of any system if they were prudent betimes; but that does not prove the system which oppresses them to be a just or an equitable one. We only come back to the old problem whether it is a desirable thing for the Church systematically to underpay its ministers. Most young men marry in years when the heart is warm and when hopes run high. Perhaps they had better not. If they knew more about life they would calculate the chances more accurately and certainly more coolly. Curates, like the rest, marry because they hope to prosper in their profession. Whose fault is it that they are so often disappointed? Thus we arrive at the consideration, what does the Church of England in its turn tacitly undertake at the time of ordination?

The Church, beyond all doubt, tacitly undertakes, that if they are faithful servants, she will be an equitable mistress. She tacitly promises that her establishment shall be conducted with reasonable justice, prudence, and good faith. Merit is not, so far as she can help it, to be uniformly neglected. Rewards are, as a rule, to be bestowed upon the deserving. Long and arduous service is not to be systematically requited with obscurity and penury. If, indeed, the Church of England were a purely spiritual community, no such engagements could be expected at her hands; but she is not. She is a temporal power as well as a spiritual one. She has property and patronage. If the labourer, according to the Sacred Text, is to be accounted worthy of his hire, she and her chief rulers have the distribution of the hire in question intrusted to them. The large amount of ecclesiastical patronage that belongs to private individuals does not indeed shift the burden of responsibility from the Church's back. As long as the public patronage of the Church is maladministered, it is not natural to expect that the private patronage of its lay members will be maladministered also. In reality, the abuse of the latter follows from the former as effect from cause. The patron of a large living has a nephew or a son-in-law in orders, and is naturally anxious for his relative's success. How is the nephew or the son-in-law to succeed? By meritorious labour and self-sacrifice? The patron of the rich living looks round and sees that meritorious labour and self-sacrifice are not so constantly recompensed by the Church of England. To leave his relative to the grateful appreciation of the Bishop of the diocese would be to leave him to poverty and failure. In pure self-defence he takes his nephew's fortunes under his own care, and in so doing he follows the ordinary rule.

Before we surrender the curate's cause as hopeless, and call on him to acquiesce in, and be contented with, the high decrees of Heaven, we must first be satisfied that professional rewards in the Church of England are not systematically mismanaged. Men whose patronage comes to them in virtue of their office are, in common fairness, bound to exercise their rights with all the conscientiousness of trustees. How do the Bishops give away the appointments that are at their disposal? How does the Lord Chancellor conduct himself in respect of similar duties? These are two very important questions, and fortunately they are questions that can be answered. It would not be difficult to collect the appointments made in the last thirty years by each single Bishop now living. Let us know how many of the appointed have been laborious and industrious parish clergyman; and how many have been sons, sons-in-law, or perhaps godsons of the right reverend donor. In ordinary public patronage the criticism of the press and of the public is a wholesome safeguard against, we do not say corruption, but nepotism and general mismanagement. In spite of all their eminence, Bishops still are men. What is more, they are

fathers and uncles, and cannot claim immunity from supervision and criticism on the part of a public, whose interest it is to see that Church patronage is administered with fairness and propriety. If some enterprising reformer would compile an index of episcopal patronage throughout the country, it would go far towards throwing a light on the wants and necessities of the Church.

CAPTAIN SPEKE.

THERE are times when, if we were Pagans, we should be inclined to believe that our lives are directed by an ironical Fate which finds a certain pleasure in mocking our highest enterprises by some unexpected reverse, and which can, upon occasion, turn death itself into a species of bathos. The higher and more awful faith which we hold sees even in the most untoward incidents the mysterious evolutions of a beneficent Providence; but deaths such as that of Captain Speke, when taken in conjunction with the life that preceded them, form the strangest comments conceivable on the uncertainty of human life and the vanity of human calculations. Here is a man who has travelled in a distant and ominous part of the globe; who has unveiled, or is generally supposed to have unveiled, the most ancient and abstruse secret of geography; who has escaped perils innumerable—perils of famine, perils of disease, perils from native ferocity, perils from his ignorance of the obscure land into which he was penetrating; yet who dies in his native country, on an occasion of pleasure, and in the flower of his years, from an accident against which a little common precaution might have guarded him. All the chances of probability seem to be set at defiance by such an end. It might reasonably be supposed that a man accustomed to the use of arms would have known better how to manage his gun when out shooting than to run the risk of one of the barrels going off accidentally as he was climbing over a wall. Yet in this way has the discoverer of the source of the Nile met with his death; and the life which escaped harmless from the manifold dangers of African travel is brought to a premature close by a casualty such as one would more readily have anticipated in the case of a cockney-sportsman. A correspondent of a daily contemporary points out that, by a singular coincidence, the celebrated explorer, James Bruce, who was himself close upon discovering the source of the Nile, also died at home by an accident. Bruce passed through a series of perils greater than any which the most daring penny romance-writer or melodramatist ever imagined for his most favourite hero; yet he perished from a fall in handing a lady down stairs after dinner. Speke shoots himself in a quiet Wiltshire field, after penetrating to the furtive and reedy fountains of the ancient Nile. A Greek poet, viewing such events, might have said that Jupiter was in a mood to make sport of men; a Greek cynic would have declared that there was no Jupiter at all, or things would not be in such strange disorder. The modern Christian believes that there is some harmonious explanation behind the apparent discord; but all men, whatever their religious views, must be equally struck with the singularity of these grim antitheses of life and death.

Bruce—perhaps the greatest of African travellers—was, as we have said, not far from revealing the source of the Nile; but he was disappointed in his calculations. He even imagined that he had succeeded in solving the problem which those tropical deserts had so jealously hidden for countless ages from the eyes of ancients and of moderns alike. But for once he was in error. The spring over which his mind dilated as the mother of the mighty Egyptian stream was, in truth, only the source of the Blue Nile, and the mystery, in futile endeavours to unravel which kings and their armies had miserably perished, still remained to stimulate the curiosity and excite the energies of a later generation. Whether even now the absolute rise of the Nile has been hit upon, is open to some doubt; and, as this is a point on which much contradictory opinion has been expressed, we do not propose to reopen the case on the present occasion. But there seems to be no doubt that Captain Speke has, at any rate, indicated the true general locality from which the great river proceeds, and that Lake Victoria N'yanza is at least one of its feeders. The deceased gentleman was only thirty-eight years of age at the time of his lamentable end; yet he had already performed one expedition to sub-equatorial Africa before the one which resulted in his great discovery. On the 30th of July, 1858, he first caught sight of Lake N'yanza, and it then occurred to him that the source of the Nile must be sought for, and would be found, in that very region. In this journey of exploration, Captain Speke was accompanied by Captain Burton, whose work

on Dahomey we review in our present impression. Speke could not at that time inquire into the truth of his conjecture; but, on returning to London, and communicating his ideas to Sir Roderick Murchison, the President of the Royal Geographical Society, that gentleman immediately asked him to go out again. His companion on the second expedition was, as we all know, Captain Grant. The plan which Speke proposed to pursue, and which he carried out, was to make at once for Lake N'yanza, to examine it, and to trace downwards to Egypt that outlet which he believed to be the Nile. Filled with confident anticipations of the success of his project, he and Captain Grant started from the eastern coast of Africa on the 2nd of October, 1860, and, passing into the vast, obscure deserts before them, were not again heard of for nearly two years and a half. On the 15th of February, 1863, they were encountered at Gondokoro, on the Nile, by Mr. Baker, who had gone up the river in the hope of hearing some news of them; and it then became apparent that they had at least pursued the course of the river (with the exception of avoiding a few bends by land travelling) from the far-distant lake below the equator to a spot within the ken of civilisation. After infinite delay and trouble—caused partly by the insubordination of the ninety-eight Africans who accompanied the explorers, partly by the opposition of the tribes they had to encounter—Captains Speke and Grant reached the western side of the lake about a year after the time at which they started, and eight or nine months later they began their homeward journey. Owing to the vexatious delays interposed by petty kings on the banks of the river, they were all the time from August, 1862, to February, 1863, making their way from Lake N'yanza to Gondokoro on the Nile; but, when we consider the savage character of the tribes they had to pass, the marvel is that they were suffered to proceed at all, and that the fate of Captain Cook did not become their own. It is sad to think that, after so strange and adventurous an expedition, the leader of the party should come home to perish accidentally by his own hand, after wearing his laurels for only the brief period of a year and a half!

There will doubtless be other expeditions to Lake N'yanza, and we shall probably learn more of the Nile and its affluents than we yet know; but the credit of having led travellers in the right direction must for ever belong to the brave young Captain who has fallen so prematurely and so unfortunately, but whose name will last among those of the greatest African explorers as long as Englishmen retain any of that spirit of inquiry which has spread the national name and the national power over so large a surface of the globe.

FOOD AND HEALTH.

THE old maxim, that "prevention is better than cure," is rapidly establishing itself as the principle on which a great department of science is based. Happily the days of drugging are gone by, and we trust the time will soon arrive when that formidable, and in many instances highly destructive engine, the Pharmacopœia, will be regarded as an interesting curiosity. Hygiene is gaining ground, and must eventually banish "Dr. Slop" from society; its aim is to prevent the generation of disease, and in order to effect this result it is necessary in the outset to be acquainted with the true conditions of health, and also with those disturbances which they occasionally undergo, and which give rise to what we call sickness. Physiology must therefore be appealed to, to tell us how the various organs of the body play their parts in the natural state, and what is requisite to maintain them in working order. This appeal has already been made in the case of plants. Agriculturists have asked, "What must we do in order that the crop may be a healthy one?" And the answer has been,—“Find out what are the materials of which the plant is composed, and be sure to supply them to it in due proportions.” This reply has been acted upon, and in no instance has it been shown that the directions, when carried out, failed to produce the required result. Now, in the case of animals the question is not so easily answered, for it is a matter of considerable difficulty to say what should be the food, the chemical composition of the organism being already known.

There is, then, some important distinction between the animal and the plant, as to the mode in which each is affected when supplied with the chemical ingredients which compose it. In both plants and animals we find two classes of substances: one, inorganic, embracing mineral compounds derived solely from the earth; the other, organic, comprising materials which cannot be obtained from the soil, but are the consequence of

the combination of water with the gases of our atmosphere. In feeding the plant, we have only to supply it with the mineral elements, because plants possess a peculiar power of causing the gases of the air to unite with water, so as to produce starch, sugar, gluten, &c. When, however, we come to inquire how shall we feed the animal, we discover the very important fact that it is incapable of combining gases to the formation of organic compounds, and that it must, therefore, be supplied with both organic and inorganic aliment. But this is not all. There is a further difficulty; we cannot, by an analysis of the body and discovery of the various organic substances of which it is composed, conclude that it is only necessary to supply these compounds in proper proportions. To explain this to non-chemical readers is no easy task, but we shall make the attempt. All the tissues of the body are prepared by or developed from the blood, and this latter is chiefly composed of a liquid compound resembling white of egg, and sundry salts and fats which it holds in solution. As this white of egg is converted into flesh, gristle, skin, bone, brain, &c., it undergoes definite chemical changes, greater or lesser, according to the nature of the tissue to be formed, and in some instances this metamorphosis goes on so far that it becomes quite impossible afterwards to reconvert the tissue into the white-of-egg compound from which it was derived. This fact is of the utmost significance; for, as all tissues are derived from this white-of-egg compound, and certain of them are incapable of being restored to their primitive condition, it follows that such tissues cannot, with advantage, be employed as food. Let us illustrate this:—In beef we find, besides many tissues capable of producing a substance closely akin to albumen (white-of-egg compound), others also, such as gelatine, chondrine, and the basis of elastic tissue, which cannot, by any process, be reduced to the state of the liquid from which they were derived. Hence, we perceive that it would be idle to supply these materials as food; for, inasmuch as they could not be converted into the basis of blood, they would be useless as articles of diet.

It was formerly supposed that all animal compounds which could be made soluble in the stomachal fluid were nutritious, and that as ordinary fleshy structures contained much *nitrogen* and fatty substances none of this element, but a large proportion of *carbon*, a sort of estimate of the value of food could be formed by calculating the proportions of carbon and nitrogen. A very little reflection will suffice to convince any rational person of the absurdity of such an opinion. Gelatine and chondrine contain a great deal of nitrogen, but each *per se* is absolutely valueless as an article of diet. Besides, we are as yet far from knowing how many organic principles having a large per-centage of nitrogen are useful or nutritious; indeed, we may say that there are probably many organic compounds in the tissues of plants and animals of which we are even now-adays in entire ignorance. It would appear, therefore, to be not only premature, but inexpedient, to estimate the value of food by the proportion of carbon and nitrogen which analysis shows it to contain.

Our object in giving the foregoing outline of the chemistry of digestion, is to enable those unacquainted with the subject to understand the nature of a Report which has lately been published "On the Food of the Poorer Labouring Classes in England." In the Blue-book which has been issued by the medical officer of the Privy Council appears the report to which we refer, and which, if it be not valuable, has at all events the merit of being voluminous. Dr. Edward Smith, on whom devolved the labour of collecting the materials upon which this production is based, has certainly had ample opportunities of investigating the relation between food and health. He has been among the needlewomen, kid-glovers, silk-weavers, shoemakers, and stocking-weavers, among those pursuing indoor occupations, and he has examined the dietary of the labouring classes of England, Scotland, and Ireland, among those who work in the open air. In each case he has collected his evidence with scrupulous care, and has compiled an enormous number of tables, showing the amounts and kind of food consumed per week by each of the individuals submitted to his notice. Yet, with all this, he tells us little that we did not know before. We learn that there is considerable destitution, that wages are insufficient to provide a supply of suitable food, and that, as a consequence, the general health of the indoor labourers is far from being good. On the other hand, the Dr. informs us that the out-door labourers are generally healthy, have better wages, and are better fed, than those belonging to the former class. Beyond this, in point of fact, the report tells us nothing that is true, which we do not know already, and exhibits to us some very glaring contradictions. Indeed, we fancy the conclusions at which the reporter has arrived are quite adequate to disprove the justness of the

basis upon which those conclusions rest. When he confines himself to a statement of facts, the matter he presents to us is of interest, though by no means novel; but when he proceeds to frame his generalizations, we are sadly disappointed, though tempted to say of him as of Cassio, "Forsooth, a great arithmetician."

The great error into which Dr. Smith has fallen lies in supposing that he can calculate the nutritious power of the food eaten by different classes, by simply estimating its per-centage of carbon and nitrogen. This is, as we have shown, an egregious blunder, for the foods used in two different localities, though containing an equal proportion of carbon and nitrogen, may have had very different nutrition-values, owing to the presence in one or other of certain substances, which, though rich in both of their elements, may have been incapable of conversion into an albuminous material, and hence worthless in the repair of the tissues. Thus, in some of the tables we find two sets of instances: in one case the individual consumes a definite quantity of bread, meat, sugar, and milk per week; and in another he or she consumes nearly the same quantity of the other forms of food, but twice as much meat; yet, according to the returns of the reporter, the former has been supplied with nearly as much nutritious food as the latter. Perhaps the best example of this kind of comparison is that shown in the tables relating to the food of the out-door labourers. In this it is stated that the average weekly amounts of nitrogen and carbon consumed by English and Irish labourers are as follow:—

	Carbon.	Nitrogen.
England.....	40,673 grs.	1,594 grs.
Ireland	43,366 „	2,434 „

Can it be believed? The poor, half-starved Irish labourer is better fed and receives more nutrition than the healthy, stout Saxon peasant! Curiously enough, too, it would seem that this calculation is made without reference to the potato diet of the former, from which we infer that the proportion of the elements, though estimated in the table for bread, must have been based upon some scheme of substitution, in which the latter variety of aliment replaced the potato. In any case, it is a most striking circumstance that the Irish peasant is better fed than the English one, more especially as Dr. Smith writes, "*that the present condition of the Irish labourer is a mere struggle to maintain health and strength,*" and also that "*any sum abstracted from his present income would lessen the amount of food obtainable, and thereby induce disease.*" If we were to accept this assertion, we should be led to form some very curious conclusions concerning the physiology of man; for we should find that human beings, living under the same conditions, even when well fed, were starved to all appearance, and when supplied with the elements of nutrition in a lesser degree were able-bodied and healthy. If Dr. Smith be right, he has thrown immense light upon the present political aspect of the sister country, for he has shown the existence of a plethoric condition of the inhabitants which can of course be adduced in explanation of the serious disturbances which so frequently occur in the sister island!

When Dr. Smith asserts that health and longevity of the English agricultural labourer "can only" be explained by the fact that he is well fed, he sketches out a very important hygienic law; for he shows us that pure air, light, and exercise have, after all, but little to do with the maintenance of a healthy state of the body. This is no trivial piece of information and must prove, indeed, acceptable to the city clerk, who, confined from week's end to week's end within the dusty walls of a merchant's office, labours under the foolish impression that a Sunday's excursion into the country is absolutely necessary.

When will red-tapeism cease? We ask the question gravely. A huge report of a hundred and ten pages is sent in to Government; it is full of figures, and tables, and schematic illustrations, and after all contains, as far as regards any practical results it can lead to, absolutely nothing. Why is this sort of thing permitted? If a learned society required a grant of a few hundred pounds for the purposes of scientific investigation, Government would not lend its aid, as Mr. Babbage has pretty well shown. An important educational establishment in Dublin is about to be extinguished, forsooth, because retrenchment is advisable; but here incalculable sums are expended in producing a result which is, to say the least of it, "stale, flat, and unprofitable." If Dr. Smith's report were presented to "Mr. Merle," he would assuredly have pronounced it to be "granite;" Dominic Sampson on beholding it would have exclaimed "Prodigious!" to our mind it is *Vox et preterea nihil!*

HOW TO ABOLISH TURNPIKE TOLLS.

THE metropolis, north of the Thames, has been virtually cleared of turnpike gates. It is now proposed to remove the tolls from the metropolitan area south of the Thames. The trusts are virtually free from debt, and the question at issue really is, whether the tolls are to be kept up solely for the purpose of defraying the repairs of the road. Parliament answered this question in the negative in regard to the Middlesex metropolitan roads, and on the 1st of July eighty-one bar-gates were removed, and fifty miles of road set free. It would be a remarkable inconsistency and anomaly if—other things being equal—turnpike tolls were abolished on the north side of the Thames, and continued on the south. Yet a meeting of the ratepayers of the parish of Lewisham was held on Tuesday last, at which it was determined to oppose the abolition of tolls, unless the cost of maintaining the roads were equitably distributed over the whole area. This is the real question at issue not only in the metropolis but throughout the country. A pretty general agreement will be found everywhere, that the system of turnpikes is very vexatious and expensive. In London and the larger towns it is injurious to property, and a nuisance to the neighbourhood. But (1) certain trusts are encumbered with debt, and this debt must be extinguished; and (2) it is necessary to determine whether the roads shall be in future kept up by the parish or by the district. If by the district, the question arises (3) what shall be the extent of the district—a section of a county or the county itself?

It may not be without interest to explain the technical process by which the Southern Metropolitan tolls in particular, and the tolls of country trusts in general, crop up from time to time, and become ripe for legislation. A Turnpike Act gives power to collect tolls for a limited term. When that term expires the Act is included in the Annual Continuance Act, which continues the trusts for two years, unless renewed for a further term by Act of Parliament. When the debt is paid off, and the parishes through which the road passes agree that the tolls shall be abolished, the trust meant to expire is put in the schedule, and the Act is continued only for one year. It is then necessary for the trustees, or other parties concerned, to take steps to renew their Act in the following session. In the case of the South Metropolitan gates, the debts being virtually extinguished, the Government propose to throw upon the parishes the expense of keeping the roads in repair. The trusts will thus be abolished unless specially renewed by Act of Parliament. This is, to some extent, a departure from the usual routine. The practice of the Home Office has been to continue the trusts and tolls even when the debt is paid off, unless the parish expressed a willingness to repair the road. The general satisfaction expressed at the abolition of the gates north of the Thames has induced Sir George Grey to sound the southern parishes as to the desirableness of abolishing or continuing the tolls on the Surrey side of the river. We are aware that the Surrey and Sussex trusts have been twice or thrice before placed in the schedule, and that by the interference of the Home Office the tolls have been continued. This time we hope Sir George Grey will compel the several trusts and parishes to go before a Committee of the House of Commons, and show why what is convenient and equitable for the north should not be equally so in the south.

Those who have studied the subject are by no means surprised that parochial opposition is being manifested, in some quarters, to the abolition of these tolls. Every parish opposes an increase to its rates, no matter for what improvement—whether the Thames Embankment, or a comprehensive plan of metropolitan drainage. The parishes north of the river threw every obstacle in the way of toll abolition, and materially added to the expense incurred in obtaining the Abolition Bill. But the Metropolitan Road Commissioners were firm. They recognised the fact which we are desirous to impress upon our readers, that the parish is only one party to the question, and that the toll-payer and the public have an equal right to be heard. We believe that the suburban vestries are short-sighted in their opposition. They are certainly not disinterested. When a Turnpike Act expires, and tolls are no longer leviable, the parish must repair the turnpike road in common with its other highways. Hence parishes refuse to concur in the abolition of trusts, and the Home Office has hitherto weakly sided with the vestries, in the absence of any agitation on the part of the public.

Vestries, then, being interested parties, their opposition ought by no means to be conclusive. So long as a turnpike trust (in other words, the public) maintains a road, the parish evades its common law liability; when the Act, which is a piece

of exceptional legislation, expires, then the original liability of the parish comes back. Of course they object to assume a burden which they have for so many years shifted upon other people. Let the toll-payer never forget, that when he is made to pull up, and hand over his 3d. or 6d., he has already cleared off the debt on the South London roads, and that he is now doing something more than paying for the repair of the road. Twenty or thirty per cent. of his money runs to waste in cost of collection and management. The balance goes to relieve the parishes from their common law liability. This is the toll-payer's view of the question, and he has common law and ancient usage on his side.

It is said to be a hardship upon particular parishes to maintain a turnpike road out of the rates, inasmuch as the roads are used by the ratepayers of surrounding and distant parishes. In any general measure for the abolition of tolls throughout the country this objection might be allowed its due weight. In legislating for the southern area of the metropolis, it would be unwise to allow exceptional and often imaginary cases of hardship to interfere with the common law liability of parishes for the repairs of the roads. There is the example of London north of the Thames. The opposition of the parishes was not allowed to prevail against the Metropolis Roads Act, nor should the short-sighted opposition of the vestries or ratepayers on the Surrey side prevent the abolition of toll gates south of the Thames. In so populous a district, the turnpikes cause a vexatious impediment to intercourse and traffic. Their removal is usually followed by an increase in the rateable value of property, and a corresponding advantage to the parishes. There is often a perceptible difference in value between the houses on the town side of a toll bar, and those on the country side. The removal of the gates at Hyde Park-corner and at Tyburn has been followed by the erection of splendid towns, which have immensely benefited the parish of Paddington. Kensington-gate led to the construction of an inferior class of houses beyond the toll bar, where a superior class of houses would have been erected, but for the gate. Every day more or less depreciates the rates of parishes by these means, because the inferior houses, once built, remain. Sir Joseph Paxton has pointed out the impediments offered by the toll-gates to the making of new streets and new districts on the Surrey side of the river. Mr. Bradfield, the active agent for promoting the abolition of tolls in the metropolis, said to a Committee of the House of Commons:—"If you go from the Elephant and Castle to Peckham, and turn off by Southampton-street, you will go through a neighbourhood which is half-ruined by the continuance of Walworth-gate. I have been told that coals, and so on, are considerably dearer than on the town side of the gate." Mr. Bradfield also referred to the increased number of railways on the south side of the Thames, which will diminish the traffic considerably, and add to the necessity for removing the gates. The wear and tear being less, the cost of repairs will be diminished, while the expense of collection and management will be only imperceptibly reduced.

In the country the case is different. A small parish might have a long length, say three miles, of turnpike road passing through it, without any corresponding advantages of increase in rateable value from building, &c. To take down the gates in that parish would be to impose an onerous burden upon the ratepayers. In any general measure, it would be more equitable to throw the repairs upon the district. The burden would then be small, and the inequality would be got rid of. What should constitute the district it would be for the wisdom of Parliament to determine. Mr. Newmarch, of Cirencester, a solicitor and clerk to a turnpike trust, who has published a valuable pamphlet, would place the management of turnpike roads under a District Highway Board, and would give to the Quarter Sessions the power of making a special rate, and determining the proportions in which the main road should be repaired by each parish in the district. Mr. Wrightson, M.P., Chairman of one of the Turnpike Acts Committees, would maintain the turnpike system until the debts were got rid of, and would then throw the roads upon the parishes, according to their common law liability, unless the rates exceeded 2s. 6d. in the pound, when the county should make up the deficiency. Mr. Wrightson, we may remark in passing, has placed upon record the enormous expense of the wasteful system of collection by means of toll gates, and the vast aggregate expenditure incurred (about £2,000,000 sterling) in applying to Parliament for the renewal of trusts.

The most feasible plan appears to be to throw the repairs of the roads upon the extended area of the counties, rather than upon the parishes. The scheme is by no means new. The principle of charging the debt upon the county rate has been

adopted in South Wales. In Ireland the toll gates have been removed, and the repairs of the road and the existing debt are charged upon the rates of the counties and baronies. In Scotland several counties have obtained acts for the county management of their roads. Colonel Pennant, Chairman of one of the two Committees of the Lower House, before which all road-bills are brought, would give a permissive power to counties to levy a rate for the liquidation of the debts of the trusts within the county, or to carry out a consolidation of trusts. This kind of permissive legislation has, we incline to think, been carried too far, and we observed, with satisfaction, that signs of reaction were shown, last session, in the House of Commons, against further proposals of this character. The Highway Act was unwisely made permissive, to conciliate two or three noisy opponents. If it were now, after due trial of its advantages, made compulsory, the work of abolishing toll gates would be easy. The Highway Boards could efficiently manage the turnpike roads as well as the highways. There is now a double machinery and a double staff. There are two surveyors in the same district looking after roads which are crossing each other everywhere, and the Highway Board Surveyor is perpetually going over the turnpike roads (with which he has now nothing to do) as he surveys the parish roads in his district. The liability for the debt should follow the transfer of liability for repairs. The current value of the bonded debt of England and North Wales is about £3,000,000, which sum might be liquidated by an annual payment of £180,000 for twenty-five years. This sum would be, in Mr. Disraeli's language, a mere "flea-bite," when distributed over the various counties. The economy and efficiency of administration attainable by the consolidation of management would carry us beyond the limits of the present article, but are signally illustrated in the evidence laid before Parliament.

DR. LIVINGSTONE UPON AFRICA.

It is six years since Dr. Livingstone addressed the British Association in the City of Dublin, under circumstances not unlike those which now mark his reappearance among its members at the present meeting in Bath. This earnest and simple-minded missionary had then just returned to England after performing the greatest and most successful of his African travels, and at that Dublin meeting was telling his simple tale to a densely-crowded assembly, who listened to him with the deepest interest and profound attention. His book, which has since been read by thousands, and has given him a world-wide fame, was not then published; and his story, therefore, came home to the minds of his hearers with all the freshness with which novelty could invest it. All men united in paying him the highest tributes of regard and esteem. The Geographical Society, on his return to England, prepared for him one of its most brilliant receptions, and he was, moreover, honoured with an interview by the Queen. So deeply did the honours and favours everywhere showered on this single-minded but noble Christian affect him, that he himself declared, as he was about to return to the field of his African labours, that he did so with a sense of responsibility which he never felt before, and the feeling that greater efforts than he had yet made were now required of him. One of the objects of his return from Africa was to excite in the English nation an interest in the opening up of the African Continent to the energies of Englishmen, and in the regeneration of the negro by the civilizing influence of Christianity. In this object he thoroughly succeeded. He found kind friends everywhere; societies took up his cause; a special missionary society was formed by the three Universities, with the sole view of aiding his efforts; Parliament cheerfully voted £5,000 for the expenses of the next journey of discovery he was to engage in; and an expedition was equipped and sent out, under his charge, for the prosecution of his discoveries on the Zambesi river and the adjoining countries.

Dr. Livingstone has been since to Africa; he has spent wearisome nights and days there; he has not laboured without disappointments, but still he has toiled persistently and cheerfully, and reaped a fair measure of success in enlarging the field of his discoveries, and making regions which he had visited before better known. He now has again come back to England; and on Monday last he told the tale of the six years' experience which he has reaped.

The first circumstance which strikes us as to Dr. Livingstone is that he is no ordinary missionary. His mind is of a comprehensive cast, which raises him far above the level of men of his class. In his case the man of science, the philanthropist, the traveller, and the missionary, combine to form an instrument admirably fitted for

the work for which Providence has designed him. Besides, there is that intense sympathy with human nature, combined with humility, in his character which is always certain to secure an open access to the hearts of the benighted but well-meaning natives of Africa. Wherever he goes his frank and honest countenance, his utter disinterestedness, his reprobation of slavery, and the name of Englishman, gain him a hearty reception among these ignorant savages. Dr. Livingstone also perfectly understands in what the secret of missionary success consists. An improvement in the physical condition of the savage is a first step to the cultivation of his moral nature and the awakening of his religious feelings. He must not only experience the kindness of the white man, but his superiority to himself in knowledge and art. He must feel that the missionary has power and skill to add to his comfort and happiness; and, when he does so, he will rely more readily on his religious teaching. As Dr. Livingstone himself remarked in missionary work, savages must be treated much as boys are in ragged schools, where food and clothing, given without any proselytizing object in view, are found to pave the way admirably for religious instruction. Dr. Livingstone perfectly understands this; and, therefore, the scheme which he has proposed for the regeneration of the African negro is exactly such as we should expect from a man of large views, having a thorough knowledge of human nature, and well acquainted with all the difficulties of a work in which human feelings and prejudices must mix in the most complex combinations.

The scheme, to the mere pioneering operations of which Dr. Livingstone has already devoted twenty-four years of a life of exposure which only an iron constitution could withstand, consists of three parts. The first of these is the introduction of the white man, and European civilization, into the central regions of Africa. It was formerly supposed that the middle of this continent was a vast parched desert, unapproachable by man. Sir Roderick Murchison had however pointed out, some years ago, the improbability of this notion, and expressed his belief, on geological grounds, that, instead of a desert, an extensive mountainous plateau, with large rivers, would be found there. The discoveries of Livingstone on the Zambesi, and of Speke and Grant on the Nile, have now confirmed this happy conjecture, and proved that there is a vast plateau, inclining on all sides towards the centre of the continent, and containing some of the largest lakes in the world, and great rivers, of which the Nile and the Zambesi are instances. The climate is also ascertained to be excellent, and the soil most fertile. The country abounds everywhere in timber, is covered with forests containing lignum-vitæ, ebony, and satin-wood. The valley of the River Shire, a branch of the Zambesi, lately explored by Dr. Livingstone, abounds in elephants. On one occasion he saw a herd, which, he calculated, could not have contained less than 800. Coal also is found in abundance, and iron. The sugar-cane thrives there with the greatest luxuriance; and the whole region, from 15 degrees of South latitude up to the Equator, is one of the best cotton-growing districts in the world. The River Zambesi is the great artery which opens this fertile country to the rest of the world; and Dr. Livingstone is of opinion that the difficulties which at present beset its navigation are not greater than what ordinary commercial enterprise could easily overcome. To open up, then, this central African plateau to a legitimate and profitable trade with England and to European colonization is the leading feature of Dr. Livingstone's scheme.

But though this is the first thing which he desires to see accomplished, the consequences to which it would lead in the extinction of the slave-trade in Africa and the civilization of the African, are objects of far nearer and dearer interest to him than any mere consideration of commercial advantages. The second part of Dr. Livingstone's scheme, then, is the emancipation of the negro and the extinction of the slave-trade. "The slave-trade," he says, "is the gigantic evil which meets us at every step in this country. We cannot move through any part without meeting captured men and women, bound and sometimes gagged." He draws a fearful picture of a slave-hunt of the Manganja tribe in the valley of the Shire, in which the chase was so continued by the Portuguese that a whole people perished by starvation, and the Shire became "a valley of dry bones." This trade is a disgrace to Portugal, a country which has for years been considered the ally of England. Dr. Livingstone justly complains of the Eastern coast of Africa being so shut up by these people for the sake of the slave-trade, that traders or missionaries have no access to the natives. He experienced himself the full force of the obstacles which they have thrown in the way of free-trading with the natives. It is a slur on Portugal, and British influence with the Portuguese Government should be used to prevent it. As Dr. Livingstone says, "Portugal gains nothing but a shocking bad name" by encouraging this

cruel slave-hunting. The African is naturally fond of trade, and would prefer to engage in it. But when the intercourse with traders is forbidden by the Portuguese, there is no other source of profit open to the warlike tribes but in this chase after their fellow-men, with all its misery and bloodshed. On the western coast of Africa the policy of England, under Lord Palmerston's Government, has produced very different results. Dr. Livingstone says that he found the slave-trade there virtually abolished. The efforts of her Majesty's cruisers to prevent it were supported by the permission given to missionaries and traders to penetrate into the interior of the country. Lawful commerce there had since increased from £20,000 of exports in ivory and gold-dust to two and three millions. Like results, and even greater, might be realized on the East Coast, were it not for Portuguese jealousy and interference. There can, therefore, be very little reason to doubt that, if this obstacle to free-trade with the central plateau of Africa were removed, the slave-trade and its miseries would, to a great extent, disappear, and a more wholesome traffic take its place.

The third and last part of Dr. Livingstone's scheme is the enlightenment of the African mind by the communication to it of the blessings of Christianity. He implores that the same mistake be not made there as in India; and that the openings which trade may hereafter make may be turned to good account in sowing the seeds of the Gospel. There are certainly missionary opportunities in Africa not to be found elsewhere, and such as should not be thrown away. It is much easier to convert savage nations than those which have already made some progress in civilization, and have become attached to particular creeds by prejudice and national feelings. It must be easier to convert a Makololo or a Bushman than a Mahomedan or a Hindoo. Though, therefore, we may not agree with Dr. Livingstone in condemning our Indian policy, we agree with him that in Africa, where the same difficulties do not exist, every opportunity should be taken to educate the natives in the true light of the Christian religion. Whether Dr. Livingstone's scheme will ever be fully carried out it is of course impossible to say. The time for so great an event is certainly far distant. There are other difficulties also which deserve to be considered. The presence of the white man has not been always a pure advantage to aboriginal tribes. There is a tendency in the lower types of human nature to disappear before the higher. How far this tendency may be counteracted by Christian feelings of justice and benevolence in the dominant class, is a question to which a favourable answer may be given in some future age. But there is much reason to fear that, for many ages to come, European colonists, such as we know them to be, will not coexist with native tribes in the central plateau of Africa without exercising some damaging influence on them, whatever be the other benefits which may flow from the intercourse.

THE "MORNING STAR" AND ITS CORRESPONDENTS.

We called attention last week to the publication by the *Morning Star* of statements extracted by the importunity of its American correspondent upon the wretched man, Müller, while in prison in New York. The *Morning Star* has retaliated with a long article, written in the Transatlantic style so peculiar to it, and doubtless suited to its readers:—

"What is the LONDON REVIEW?" asks the *Star*. "The price being stated at fourpence (we have no means of knowing whether anybody has ever really paid the sum), it, of course, affects aristocratic airs, or, at least, goes in for kid gloves and gentility. . . . Its sharpest criticism never goes beyond a kind of squeaking shrewishness. . . . a singular publication. . . . a constant and futile effort to find words strong enough to express any sort of meaning seems to us the characteristic of all its compositions. . . . We have not the least desire to avoid meeting the charge made against us,—our readiness to meet it cannot be better demonstrated than by our dragging it into publicity. . . . disentombing it, in fact, from its secluded sepulchre in the LONDON REVIEW. . . . For the sake of meeting it, we do not even mind for once giving the LONDON REVIEW an advertisement in our leading columns," &c.

It is not at all astonishing that a weekly journal, written by gentlemen, should seem to the *Star* a "singular publication," deficient in the "strong" language, and other literary graces, of which the above extracts are a specimen. And any introduction which the *Star* can offer us to a public, for whose taste its flowers of rhetoric were designed, is not likely to prove a valuable advertisement to the LONDON REVIEW. Without, however, descending to a controversy with the *Morning Star*, we may briefly observe that in a long and violent article it has adduced nothing to lead us to modify either of two assertions which we made last week. The first was, that the conduct of the *Morning Star*, and of its correspondent, was disgraceful; the second, that probably no English journal would have been guilty of such conduct but the *Morning Star*.

We have much pleasure in being able, by way of contrast, to

quote the opinion of the *Daily Telegraph* upon this subject. After speaking of an incident in the discussion of Müller's case, it says:—

"A far graver offence, however, against the laws of common fairness and decency has been committed by another of our contemporaries. It seems that the correspondent of this journal in New York forced himself into the presence of the miserable captive in the Tombs prison, and there, on some pretence or other, induced him to give a statement of his answer to the charge brought against him.

"Now whether this statement was ever made at all under the circumstances represented, or whether it is correct or not, we have, of course, no means of judging. We can only say that its publication at the present moment is a grave breach of professional dignity and duty. Here is a man under suspicion of a most dreadful crime—a suspicion so weighty that, even if innocent, he will find it a matter of extreme difficulty to clear himself from the charge. Under such circumstances a gentleman, whom we must presume from his position to be a man of education, assumes the office of a volunteer detective, an amateur informer; induces the unhappy prisoner, without cautioning him, and without the advice of his legal counsellor, to make a statement as to the nature of his defence; and then proceeds to give the public the benefit of his ill-acquired knowledge. That any respectable paper should have thought fit to publish this document on the very eve of Müller's arrival must be a subject of general surprise and sincere regret. Supposing one of two not improbable events—that the account should be inaccurate, or else that Müller should be advised to try a different line of defence—then an incalculable injury is inflicted upon a man who has need of every chance in his power. There can be no safety for any one accused of a crime if these unauthorised, unofficial, and uncertified statements of alleged confessions are allowed to be put forward in the public press; and we trust that the censure this unhappy disregard for decency is certain to evoke will put a stop to any repetition of a similar offence."

Here we have the manly English tone, not the Yankee hankering after anything that will sell. Now turn to another authority. The *Law Times* writes:—

"One of the cheap daily papers, the lowest, happily, in its character of purveyor of news, although once it gave promise of better things, has adopted a new mode of drawing a penny from the morbidly curious. At the news shops we read, this week, placarded in the largest letters, 'Interview of our correspondent with Müller. Müller's statement as to the night of the murder.' From the statement itself, so far as credit can be given to this kind of information, it might be learnt that the correspondent led the prisoner Müller into a conversation about the nature of his defence and about his possession of the watch and chain, and other matters, including a cross-examination as to the mode in which he procured his passage-money. For any purpose of truth or justice such a conversation is not worth ink and paper. But it is proper to notice how, for the sake of pandering to the lowest appetite for such exciting stuff, the humane principle of British law where the commonest prisoner is concerned, much more where one is on the way to a trial for his life, has been slighted from vulgar motives of gain. According to law, a prisoner is never invited to make any statement to any officer or anyone concerned with him, or to any court where he undergoes either his preliminary or his final trial, nor is he allowed to make a statement without a caution that he may be prejudiced by it in evidence. It is true that a statement made to a newspaper correspondent is not likely, unless the correspondent be subpoenaed, to be actually given in evidence, but the publicity afforded to it causes it to operate on the public, and consequently on the minds of the jurymen. It is easy to caution jurymen to dismiss from their minds all that they heard or read before they come into court, but as long as men are men the thing is impossible. A great responsibility rests on those who increase the jurymen's difficulty by publicly prejudicing cases. All newspapers which set humanity and lawfulness above sordid pence carefully abstain from thus practically interfering with the course of justice. What then shall we think of a newspaper which, in the first days of a prisoner's arrest on a capital charge, when his senses are scattered, before he has even had an opportunity of taking counsel with his legal advisers on his defence, or for considering his position, allows its correspondent to thrust himself into the prisoner's cell and question and cross-question him on the vital points of his case, or which, at least, instead of reprimanding a correspondent who has done so, publishes conspicuously the disgraceful result? To take a man at such a disadvantage for selfish ends is base and cowardly."

MÜLLER IN LONDON.

On Monday Müller was placed at the bar at Bow-street, but the case was only partly proceeded with, and the remainder of the evidence will be taken on Monday next. It would be premature to make any comment on the case thus far developed. It is more legitimate at present to note the amazing interest attached to the slightest fact concerning the unfortunate man, which has been shown by all sorts of people. When he landed at Liverpool on the night of Friday week, the multitude of people on every point from which a view of the place of arrival could be had was such that the police had to give the public the slip, and land their prisoner at Prince's Pier. Even here they found a mob of people, who had anticipated the *ruse*, and who, as soon as the tender had steamed alongside, rushed forward with yells, calling out, "Where's Müller?" and so pressing on the cab, which had been provided for him, that it was only after a desperate struggle that he was forced into it and driven away amid the yells and shouts of the mob. When he was taken to the detective-office, the room in which he was placed had to be cleared by main force; and even after after this

was done, some one managed to obtain admission by walking in rear of two detective officers, and had the impudence to ask Müller if he thought he would be able to prove his innocence. This person—possibly a correspondent of the *Morning Star*—was at once requested by the police to leave the room. Between Liverpool and London crowds of spectators gathered at the railway stations hoping to see something of the prisoner. When the train arrived at the Camden Station, porters, stokers, and clerks pressed upon the platform and clambered upon every part of the carriage in which he sat; and at the Euston Station again a large crowd had assembled, and Müller was driven off in the police van amidst a tremendous shout of execration. All day on Saturday Bow-street was thronged with people expecting his arrival, and when the van containing him at last arrived, it was high being overturned by the pressure of the crowd. When he stepped out he was assailed by a storm of hissing and groaning. "The people," writes one of our daily chroniclers, "seemed surprised at the slight, mean, and shabby appearance of the man who had been so long the theme of universal discussion. Far below the middle height, excessively plain-looking and ill-featured, and with red scraggy hair, garments thin and seedy, and wearing a white broad-brimmed and somewhat weather-beaten straw hat, he really was not 'equal to the occasion' in the estimation of the crowd, who freely commented upon the disappointment which they had experienced. 'What!' said one stalwart, rugged denizen of Seven Dials, 'he murder Mr. Briggs! He chuck a big man out of the carriage! Why, he couldn't do it.'" How Müller looked at the various epochs of his journey, what he ate and drank, and how he seemed to relish it, how he slept, what books he read on his voyage, and his criticisms upon them, have all been chronicled with diplomatic minuteness. Of this there is no reason to complain. But we hope that when Müller is brought up again for examination on Monday, the execrations which greeted him last week will not be repeated.

MR. SEWARD ON SLAVERY.

MR. SEWARD has given offence to the English partisans of the Federal Government by his plain speaking at Auburn on the subject of slavery. How anyone who has watched the development of Mr. Lincoln's policy could suppose that he was waging war with the South to do away with slavery we cannot say. We can recall no act or manifesto of his which at all sanctions this view. Mr. Seward certainly has no such idea, for he speaks of all the acts of his Government in reference to the slaves as purely military measures, which will be maintained during the war, and will cease when it ceases:—

"While the rebels continue to wage war against the government of the United States, the military measures affecting slavery, which have been adopted from necessity, to bring the war to a speedy and successful end, will be continued, except so far as practical experience shall show that they can be modified advantageously, with a view to the same end. When the insurgents shall have disbanded their armies, and laid down their arms, the war will instantly cease, and all the war measures then existing, including those which affect slavery, will cease also, and all the moral, economical, and political questions, as well as questions affecting slavery as others which shall then be existing between individuals and states and the Federal government, whether they arose before the civil war began, or whether they grew out of it, will, by force of the constitution, pass over to the arbitrament of courts of law, and to the councils of legislation."

It is quite true that in making this statement Mr. Seward professed himself altogether unauthorized to speak for the President upon hypothetical questions, but probably he knows Mr. Lincoln's mind at least as well as his sympathisers in England.

THE CROPS OF 1864.

MR. TURNER, the Yorkshire land agent who last year made a journey of a thousand miles, examining the crops and collecting samples, has gone over the same ground this year, and gives the result of his investigations in a letter to the *Times*. Of wheat he says that we have this year a full average crop, which has been secured in excellent condition, though it will weigh about 2 lb less per bushel than last year. The crop of barley varies, but taking it over the whole kingdom, it is above an average crop. The excessive drought and other circumstances will render a greater proportion of it unfit for malting purposes; but this, he thinks, will not prove a loss to the farmer. Oats are an irregular crop, but, on the whole, an average in bulk, in good condition, and, where heavy crops are grown, unusually free from inferior grains. The bean crop is clearly under the average; peas not so, and in good condition; turnips not half so heavy as might have been expected; grass, with few exceptions, completely burnt up; after-grass absolutely worthless; hay a moderate crop, and, in consequence of the scarcity of grass, held at extravagant prices. He concludes:—"It will be observed that there is this year much variety in our crops, and several of them not so productive as one could have wished; still, there is very much to be thankful for; there is a fair crop of wheat, which may now be said to have all been secured sound and good. Hence, a great portion of the staff of life for the people is again secured for another year, and the late showers of rain, though too late to do much good to pastures, will put the land intended for autumn wheat into good condition to receive seed for the crop of another year."

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

THE Report of Mr. Tidd Pratt, Registrar of Friendly Societies, was issued last week. Its features, in some respects, bear an unhappy resemblance to the reports of former years. There are 20,000 societies, and it is admitted that some of them are certainly insolvent. As a general rule this result is attributable, not to fraudulent intention, but to the ignorance of the managers of the real risks to which they stand liable until the inadequacy of the funds is forced upon their notice by the gradually increasing claims. But Mr. Tidd Pratt sees signs of an increasing desire on the part of the managers to place their societies upon a firm basis, and he even thinks that if Mr. Gladstone's bill were to have the effect of destroying friendly societies in detail, such a result would be lamentable. He notices, as a healthy sign, the steadily increasing number of rules and alterations of rules which he has examined and certified, and says that even the increasing number of notices of dissolution is rather a healthy than an unhealthy sign, because the dissolution of a society is frequently effected with a view of re-modelling and starting afresh under better regulations. Still many break up altogether; and he warns us that many more must do so before the whole status of these societies can be considered sound and wholesome. He still receives, almost daily, complaints by members respecting the compulsory payments for beer and anniversary expenses, the misapplication of funds and the manner in which societies are dissolved, the difficulty of obtaining payments on the death of a member or his wife when the parties have joined a society through the means of an agency. To consider these and some similar matters he recommends the appointment of a committee next session; but on the whole, looking back over a series of years, the state of the Friendly Societies has been decidedly improving.

THE FIRE IN GRESHAM-STREET.

THE City has lost one of its most interesting relics in the Haberdashers' banqueting-hall, which was burnt in the great fire in Gresham-street, on Monday morning. No part of it but the four walls remain standing, but the portraits of some of the first masters and benefactors of the company, with some other paintings, have been saved. The old hall was destroyed in the Great Fire of London, and the one which shared its fate in the beginning of the present week was rebuilt two years afterwards by Sir Christopher Wren. The fire on Monday broke out on the premises of Messrs. Tapling, carpet manufacturers, of Gresham-street, in the upper floors, occupied by Messrs. Hellaby, warehousemen. The whole of their premises were destroyed. A considerable portion of those belonging to Mr. Hugh Jones, of Wood-street, shared their fate. One of the sufferers who is insured for £20,000 has lost £200,000; and at one time it was feared that the whole of the property in the immediate neighbourhood, amounting to upwards of a million, would be lost. Fortunately, there was an unusual supply of engines, and the flames were kept from spreading. As yet there is no clue to the origin of the fire. But it appears that no one slept upon the Messrs. Tapling's premises, nor had anyone entered them between five o'clock on Saturday afternoon and the discovery of the fire.

A MATRIMONIAL SCANDAL.

MR. EDWARD HAMMOND, a gentleman residing at Peckham, has, with two of his female servants, been committed to take his trial for assaulting his wife and for conspiring to keep her locked up in her bedroom from September, 1862, to the 16th inst. Mrs. Hammond's emaciated appearance bore witness to her sufferings, and as far as the case has gone no apology has been made out for the treatment she received. She complains, moreover, that an improper intimacy existed between her husband and Emily Wakeman, one of the accused, and that this girl used to wear her dresses, her shawls, and bonnets, and ride out with her husband. The proceedings against all the parties are so brought that in the indictment for conspiracy none of them will be able to give evidence for the others. The case will therefore rest mainly on Mrs. Hammond's depositions. But Mrs. Hammond gave her testimony with great candour, and admitted a grievous impropriety before her marriage, with which, however, she states she had fully acquainted her husband before they were married. Mr. Hammond did not consider it a sufficient objection to their union, possibly because the lady brought him a fortune of £600 a-year.

SCIENCE AND GALLANTRY.

THE philosophers at Bath have been discussing a somewhat strange question—the relative temperature of the two sexes. Aristotle attributed greater warmth to the male, but some who came after him disputed this position. Now it seems, if Dr. Davy's experiments are correct, that the Greek was right. Dr. Davy has recently made some observations, using a thermometer of great delicacy, and taking for the purpose of his experiments three men and three women, all in good health. The temperature of the men varied between 99 and 99½; that of the women between 97½ and 98. Some discussion arose upon these statements, which gave the President of the section an opportunity of showing that science can be gallant as well as statistical. Whatever difference of opinion there might be, he said, as to the accuracy of Dr. Davy's conclusions, all would agree that if men were more warm-bodied than women, the women were the more warm-hearted.

THE "MORNING STAR" AND FRANZ MÜLLER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—In the answer which the *Morning Star* makes to your article in the last number of the *LONDON REVIEW*, I observe a discrepancy between the statements of the Editor and those of the correspondent, which is important, as proving that the *Star*, in order to make out the show of a defence for its misconduct, is compelled to garble facts which have already been otherwise stated in its own columns by its own correspondent.

The Editor of the *Star* says of your article:—

"All this angry writing is directed against us because our correspondent in New York forwarded to us certain statements which Müller desired to lay before the British public, and which we printed in our columns."

And again:—

"Müller made the statement voluntarily to our New York correspondent, and desired that they (*sic*) should be brought under the notice of the British public."

This pretence is untrue. The statements made by Müller were drawn from him, and the *Star's* correspondent went to his prison for the express purpose of drawing them from him. He writes:—

"Let me sketch, for the benefit of your readers, an interview which I had with Müller this morning. In following up the case, I will confess that I came to feel considerable curiosity to learn his version of the circumstances which apparently point so strongly to his guilt. [These and the following italics are mine.] Every murderer, you know, has explanations to offer which he thinks, or hopes, will stagger the belief in the evidence of his crime, and, as I have said, I was curious to know which link in the chain that now binds him so closely Müller would assert was weak."

Evidently the correspondent went to Müller's prison with a fixed resolve to draw him out. When he reached the prison he found him entering the prison yard to take his morning walk. Müller began to converse with one of the bystanders. The correspondent of the *Star* stood by biding his time. At length he found an opening.

"I took advantage," he writes, "of a lull in the conversation to remark to him that I expected to write to England to-day, and would gladly do my best to make public any statement he might desire regarding his whereabouts upon the night Mr. Briggs was murdered."

If upon this Müller had made a statement, could it have been said that it was "voluntarily" made, or that it was a statement which Müller "desired," as the *Star* in its defence says, "to lay before the British public?" Certainly not. But the unhappy man was, at this point of his temptation, averse to open his lips, and absolutely refused to do so.

"At first he did not seem to understand me, apparently supposing that I desired his version of the fact for publication here, as he answered that he did not care to have anything said—his counsel knew all the circumstances."

Up to this point Müller was decidedly unwilling to make any statement. How was he induced to make it? how, in fact, was it drawn from him? Let the correspondent say:—

"A casual allusion to a statement I had seen in some of the London papers to the effect that the German societies were interesting themselves in his case, and endeavouring to gather testimony for his defence, seemed to give him the correct idea of my object, and he at once proceeded to say that on the night," &c.

The unfortunate man jumped at the bait so skilfully displayed before his eyes, and as he went on, the correspondent cross-examined him. The statement thus craftily extracted, the *Star*, now that it is brought to book, calls a statement "voluntarily" made—one which Müller "desired" to lay before the British public."

Your obedient servant,

A LOVER OF FAIR PLAY.

THE GAMBLING TABLES OF BADEN-BADEN.—The late *émeute* in the assembly-room has been attended with a result which will give much satisfaction to a large portion of the visitors to Baden-Baden. For the last two or three years there have been collected from all quarters of Europe numbers of those most questionable dames that constitute the *demi-monde*. Elegantly dressed, and affable in their manners, they have surrounded the gambling tables, and marked with an eager eye the winners, and immediately have attempted to insinuate themselves into their good graces. The following letter has been addressed to each of the individuals thus remarked. It has, however, been stated that, from over-zeal upon the part of the police, some fashionable dames have found the letter addressed to them:—
"Madam,—In consequence of a measure adopted by the Grand Ducal Minister of the Interior, and the execution of which I am charged to superintend, I find myself under the necessity of interdicting to you the conversation rooms and the public promenade. If I inform you of it by this letter, you will perceive in such a proceeding my desire to avoid a scene which would certainly be as unpleasant for you as for myself.—Accept, madam, &c.—MÜLLER, Grand Ducal Commissary."—*Morning Post*.

M. DE BISMARCK.—Letters from Prussia talk of the almost triumphal entrance of M. de Bismarck into Berlin, and tell how his friends met him at the railway, enthusiastically applauded him, and escorted him to his residence, in acknowledgment of which admiring demonstrations he made a little speech, deprecating the honour paid him, and declaring that the great recent success of Prussian policy was to be attributed entirely to the King, whose firmness and courage had rendered the task of his Ministers easy, and the evening of whose life Providence had adorned by bestowing victory on the Prussian army. For the glory gained, the advantages won, the King, after God, was

alone to be thanked. He spoke of the love and fidelity of the people to their Sovereign, but to the national will or to the Parliament it is scarcely necessary to say there was no reference made.

SUNDAY SCHOOL PIC-NICS IN AMERICA.—It is no uncommon thing to procure the protecting services of prize-fighters, "sporting men," &c., at religious and Sunday-school pic-nics. Advertisements like the following are frequently seen in our daily papers:—"Fighting Man Wanted.—One who can strike from the shoulder, is not afraid of knives, pistols, &c., and can flax out three or four rowdies if they impose on him; a detective, sporting man, or ex-policeman preferred; must be a heavy weight; will be required for a few days only. Give some idea of wages required per day. Address, Excursion, box 120, *Herald Office*." It is hardly necessary to comment on the state of that society where notices like the above attract no special attention.—*New York Letter*.

A STRUGGLE FOR DEATH.—A man, in whose memorandum-book was the name "Richard Williams," has committed a determined suicide at Liverpool. He threw himself into the water from a pier, and when a man threw a life-buoy out to him, he dived away from it, seemingly resolved to die. One of the stage constables, named Sharps, jumped into the water with a determination to save the stranger in spite of himself. On Sharps seizing the drowning man a desperate struggle took place between them, the stranger being bent upon self-destruction, and Sharps being equally determined to save him. This continued for some time, the stranger ducking his head under the water in the most resolute manner. They were both at length picked up by some men in a boat, but the stranger was dead.

AN ecclesiastical objection has been suggested to the contemplated marriage of the King of Greece. The orthodox Eastern canons prohibit matrimony between a sister and her brother-in-law; consequently, if Princess Dagmar become wife of the Czarowitz, his sister, the Grand-Duchess Maria (born in 1848), cannot wed his Athenian Majesty.

THE proclamation of the King of Pumpkins for 1864 took place at the Halles-Centrales, Paris, on Sunday morning, with the usual ceremonial. The weight is 137 kilogrammes, and its largest circumference 10ft. 1in. It was grown in the valley of the Loire, and sold for 108f.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH.—The *New York Times*, of September 5, announces the arrival in America of Mr. Goldwin Smith, observing that:—"It would be a satisfaction, we feel assured, to very many of our loyal citizens, to tender him a cordial greeting, and bid him a pleasant sojourn."

LORD BROUGHAM, who is about to leave Brougham Hall to attend the Social Science meeting, completed his 86th year on Monday. The noble and venerable peer was born on September 19, 1778, and is in full possession, not only of physical vigour, but of unimpaired mental faculties. His brother and nephew are staying with the noble and learned lord at Brougham Hall.

THE *Journal du Loiret* relates the following on the authority of the Mayor of Nivelles:—"As three men were gathering pears on Sunday last in that commune, the lightning struck the tree, and killed one man on the spot, as also a dog standing near him. The other two men, who were in the tree when the lightning fell, were knocked down by the shock, and remained for some time on the ground insensible. On examining one of the men, an impression of the branches and foliage of the pear-tree was found distinctly printed on his breast."

It is said that the great majority of Poles lately engaged in the struggle for independence have been concentrated at Olmutz, and have come to the decision of taking service under the Emperor of Mexico. The Austrian authorities give every encouragement to the scheme, and the central dépôt for their final incorporation into the Mexican army is fixed at Laybach.

WE see it stated that by the death of Mr. Henry Rayner, of the Isle of Ely, the daughters of Dr. Brady, M.P. for the county of Leitrim, have inherited a fortune of upwards of £1,000,000. The deceased gentleman was the grand-uncle of the young ladies, who are now in a convent school in France.

THE young King of Bavaria is reported to have fallen violently in love with a Russian Princess whom he met at Kissingen, but it is said that his family are determined to make him wed an Austrian Archduchess.

GEORGE AUGUSTUS KING, the man who accused himself of having been concerned with Müller in the murder of Mr. Briggs, has been discharged. The evidence went to disprove the "confession," but the magistrate, perhaps, to give a drunkard a lesson, remanded him for three days further. He was then discharged with a sharp reprimand.

FATAL ACCIDENT AT A THEATRE.—A melancholy accident occurred a few days back at the theatre of Madeburg, in Prussia, during the performance of "Robert and Bertram." The scene of a part of the first act passes in a tower raised at a considerable height above the stage, and while the play was in progress the tower suddenly fell to the ground with two actors who were in it at the moment. Those men were both killed on the spot, an actress had her arm separated from her body, and a number of other persons received injuries from the fall of the beams and planks of which the tower was constructed.

MEYERBEER'S "AFRICAINNE."—M. Emile Perrin, director of the French Opera, has addressed a letter to the editor of the *Figaro-Programme*, contradicting a statement recently made in that publication respecting Meyerbeer's "Africaine." The director asserts that the opera in question has not been read at the Opera, and that not one of the artistes or persons employed at the theatre have any knowledge whatever of the work, and consequently cannot be in a position to express an opinion as to its score.

MR. GYE is said to meditate giving the "Zauberflöte" next season, with the three sisters Patti as Queen of Night, Pamina, and (Mlle. Amalia being still to be heard) Papagena.

THE CHURCH.

THE CHURCH IN THE NAVY.

On a late occasion we directed attention to the state of the Church in the Navy, and the difficulties which there interfere with and frustrate the best efforts of a clergyman in the discharge of his duty. In doing so, we felt that the subject was one of growing importance, which Government will soon be forced to take into consideration. Public attention has been much directed latterly to questions relating to the moral and religious improvement of the sailor, as well as the soldier. The agent by whose aid this improvement can best be effected is the clergyman, or naval chaplain, to whose charge the spiritual welfare of the men of his ship is committed. To be effective for good, it is essential that his action should not be so unnecessarily fettered by rules, or constrained by superior authority, that he ceases to be any longer truly a minister among parishioners. To the question, therefore, as to the best means of increasing his usefulness, we return, chiefly with a view to adducing some further facts in confirmation of the just claims which are put forward to have some Naval Church Reform brought about in which some real provision will be made for the spiritual interest of the sailor.

Naval chaplains, with ability and eloquence sufficient to rivet the attention of fashionable and critical congregations on shore, are frequently found to effectually hide their oratorical powers from their own parishioners—the officers and crews of their ships. Clergymen whose zealous labours have been acknowledged by handsome gifts from the parishes they leave to enter or rejoin the navy, are forced to throw overboard both industry and influence when they embark in a ship of war. This singular anomaly was accounted for by a naval officer who recounted what he had himself witnessed only a few years ago. The chaplain's eloquence was getting somewhat too practical for the ears of his fastidious captain, and the reverend gentleman found his sermon cut short by the order to "pipe down," followed by the shrill whistling of the boatswain's mates, and the consequent dismissal of the congregation in the middle of his peroration. This is, we believe, a very unusual practice, but a much gentler means is not unfrequently resorted to. For example, a certain well known admiral, when in command of a line of battle ship during the Russian war, feeling bored by a really very excellent, but unusually long sea-sermon—a sermon occupying at least twenty minutes in the delivery—avowed his determination not to allow another sermon to be preached on board. Every subsequent Sunday morning, when the captain was on board, the chaplain received accordingly a very polite intimation that "the exigencies of the service would not admit of time for a sermon."

These are hardly fair specimens of the usual struggles between Church and State in the Navy, but they indicate in an extravagant form the style of under-current silently working against the legitimate influence of the naval clergy on the moral and religious tone afloat. And it is a noteworthy circumstance that the evidence of one of the above captains was chiefly relied upon by the Parliamentary Committee of 1863, as indicating the objections entertained by naval officers against a central ecclesiastical supervision.

We learn, also, from the naval clergy themselves, that some of their own members are unworthy their position by lack of learning, of piety, and of social position. We ourselves are aware of some cases in which clergymen had no reputation to lose when they joined the navy, and have subsequently gained none in it.

The discouragement sustained by good clergymen, and the admission of bad ones, point alike to a grievous lack of organization and supervision. About one-half the naval clergy employed at home and on distant stations have lately been invited by some lay friends on shore to suggest improvements. Their replies evince an almost unanimous desire for ecclesiastical supervision. The exceptions are where chaplains consider such supervision "a rod for their own backs;" a sufficient reason, we think, for "laying it on." The general feeling of the clergy appears to be, that 154 naval chaplains are entitled to episcopal supervision. They prefer a bishop to a chaplain-general, who, in spiritualities, could only be *primus inter pares*, one of themselves. Just as the captains of a large fleet would naturally prefer to be governed by an admiral instead of by a senior captain, with no distinctive rank greater than their own, so these clergymen prefer to have a bishop, who is of a higher order in the Church, to bear rule over them. But the more moderate, and, as we think, the more far-seeing of the naval clergy would be well content with a chaplain-general; not because they do not appreciate a spiritual superior, but because they see so much more difficulty in procuring a bishop of their own. These point to the long-established precedent of the army chaplains, who are little more than one-third of their own number, and yet are governed by an ecclesiastic. They also remember the naval precedent of 1812-16, when a chaplain-general did preside over the 79 chaplains then serving afloat. These precedents give them a strong hope of eventually receiving similar support. They are all unanimous, however, in condemning that most objectionable part of the precedent of 1812, which gave the office to a *landsman* wholly unacquainted with nautical parochial difficulties, and unaccustomed himself to that obedience to the lay authorities which is so essential to naval discipline. Their spokesman before the Parliamentary committee of 1863, the Rev. W. Whitmarsh, stoutly disclaimed all idea of breaking through the rule which obliges all official reports from

officers to proceed through the captain's hand to the Secretary of the Admiralty, and thence to its proper department. Yet, in the face of Mr. Whitmarsh's unmistakeable evidence, the committee adopted the rather singularly expressed opinion of the Duke of Somerset against creating a sort of chaplain-general, which nobody wanted. The noble duke's words, as adopted by the committee's report, are—"If it be meant by a chaplain-general that the chaplains should communicate *directly* with the chaplain-general, and that there should be a certain *spiritual supervision* in the navy, that in his opinion would be very mischievous." Otherwise, "strong recommendations" report that the committee "have been urged in favour of appointing a chaplain-general to the navy, and in some respects it might be advantageous."

None of the witnesses asked "that the chaplains should communicate *directly* with the chaplain-general;" the chaplains' spokesman utterly disclaimed it; and the mode of communication is a mere matter of detail for the Admiralty to arrange and re-arrange as they deem necessary. Hence it follows that this first objection of the noble Duke has no place but in his own imagination. Nor is his second objection more tenable. His Grace approves of a chaplain-general provided there is not "a certain *spiritual supervision* in the Navy." Now, we take it, that the chaplain's duties are naturally of a *spiritual* nature, and that to supervise these duties at all involves "spiritual supervision." By whom are these *spiritual* duties now supervised? Lord Clarence Paget recently told the House, that each captain was the only supervisor of the chaplain of each ship. The clergy don't want to disturb this part of the captain's duty. They only ask that the monosyllabic Quarterly Report which they now hand in to their captain for signature and transmission to the Admiralty, may be made more complete, and that on its arrival at Whitehall, it may be turned over, *not* to the clerks in the First Lord's private office, but to an ecclesiastic who would chronicle these details, and communicate the result or his suggestions, *not* to the chaplains, but to the Board. This, again, is a mere matter of detail to be arranged and re-arranged by the Admiralty from time to time as they may think fit. The Admiralty would themselves select the particular naval chaplain for the post. They could limit, if need be, the term of appointment; or they could take any other reasonable safeguard against the possibility of an erroneous selection of not placing the "right man in the right place."

Any change in the Naval Church system must be for the better; it cannot possibly be for the worse. Let then an ecclesiastic preside over the Church in the Navy, as was the case in 1812-16, and as is the case now in the Sister Service, and we may safely assure nervous imaginative captains, that neither mutiny, explosion, fire, nor shipwreck will necessarily result. Let the ecclesiastic receive the same cordial support which is now rendered to the Medical Director-General, and it requires no prophet to affirm that drunkenness and debauchery will be abated, true religion and virtue encouraged, concord and contentment promoted, and the real discipline and efficiency of the Fleet materially improved and supported.

A presiding ecclesiastic would be a living assurance to our Universities, that their best men might be safely confided to the Navy. Piety, learning, and zeal, which high pay fails to purchase, would flock to Whitehall.

The low standard of qualification which has unsuccessfully obtained for the last four years might again be raised. The Admiralty, instead of begging anybody with a "reverend" prefix to his name to accept a naval chaplaincy, might boldly proclaim at the seats of learning, "None but the best men need apply!"

SCIENCE AND SCRIPTURE.

THE Declaration of the "Students of the Natural Sciences" as to the harmony between Science and Scripture, on which we made some comments a short time ago, has again been brought to the light of day. Like one of those subterranean rivers so common in limestone districts, having plunged into darkness about two months ago, it has now again rushed up to the surface under the most provoking circumstances. We had supposed that Dr. Daubeny had given it a death-blow; but such was not the case. With the vitality which remained—the Secretary, Mr. Herbert M'Leod, being changed—a fresh effort, it seems, has been since made in new hands to force it on the acceptance of the scientific world. Whose these new hands were has this week transpired; for an appeal from the pen of Capel Berger, Esq., to Sir John Herschel, and another from Professor Stenhouse to Sir John Bowring, have met with damning replies, which have been extensively published. These replies, in our opinion, completely extinguish the last spark of vitality remaining in this document, and demonstrate how utterly hopeless is the effort made therein to force from men of weight in the scientific world a definite opinion on a question which has divided the best and greatest theologians. The total failure of the attempt is further proved by the fact that not a single name of any consequence has been added to the signatures since Dr. Daubeny first directed attention to it. We have already pointed out that the Declaration is, in fact, a nullity; that no distinct statement, which can be definitely grasped, is made in it. And this is exactly Sir John Bowring's opinion. He says that he cordially concurs in the general spirit of the document. "That all truths must ultimately harmonize—that one truth cannot be inconsistent with another truth, are propositions—axioms rather—which cannot be contested." But yet, Sir John, in announcing

his own opinions, makes statements with which the great majority of clergymen could not agree. He feels that he could sign a document declaring the harmony of Science with Scripture, and yet he holds the opinion that the Bible requires to be "brought out of the darkness to which ancient authority has condemned it." He speaks of "clearing it from its cobwebs," and "purging it from its corruptions."

Sir John Bowring candidly states his own convictions on these points. He does not mince matters as to the difference between himself and those who talk of a literal reconciling of Science and Scripture, but says boldly, that "the best resting-place for 'faith,' or 'hope,' or comfort, will, after all, be found in allowing to the intellectual faculties their widest influence and action over the whole field of thought." Sir John Herschel does not so very freely declare his convictions; but he is no less decided in condemning this document, which he believes would, if signed by the students of the natural sciences, be "an infringement of that social forbearance which guards the freedom of religious opinion in this country with especial sanctity." The movement he denounces as "simply mischievous, having a direct tendency to add a fresh element of discord to the already too discordant relations of the Christian world." Such plain common-sense, such determined refusals from three men of weight in the scientific world, and the fact that the list of signatures does not increase, ought to be sufficient to convince the originators of this movement of the hopelessness of their attempt. We sincerely trust that, in the next plunge which this Declaration will take into its underground retreat, it will continue to plunge onwards and downwards until at last it empties itself into some remote ocean, sea, or lake, say, the Dead Sea, there to be buried in everlasting oblivion.

A DEVOTED NAVAL CHAPLAIN.—We regret to learn, by the last mail from Jamaica, that the officers and crew of H.M.S. *Aboukir* were mourning the loss of their faithful friend and chaplain, the late Reverend Thomas Howe, B.A. A more zealous and conscientious minister of God never served afloat. His whole energies were devoted to the best good, not only of the navy, but of the merchant service. His last three years were spent at Port Royal, in a trying climate and a most immoral locality. Sickness and drunkenness and vice in many forms abounded. Nothing daunted, he gave himself heartily to the work of reforming and evangelizing all around, and conveying all the consolations of religion to the bedsides of the sick. Regardless of contagion, he spent hours in the hospital wards. Regardless of an almost vertical sun, he visited from ship to ship the neglected merchant seamen. Regardless of singularity, he visited his own lower deck, and strove to win the hearts of both seamen and marines. His life has been sacrificed to his untiring devotion, and the naval service has lost in this reverend gentleman not only an ornament to the naval church, but one of the best helpers of true discipline and morality it possessed. We trust this noble sacrifice to sacred duty may not be without its effect in producing many imitators, and that thus Mr. Howe's early death may prove an indirect benefit to the service.—*United Service Gazette*.

THE EPISCOPAL SHIPWRECK.—The City of London has had a narrow escape from losing its Bishop by shipwreck. The Bishop of London with his family has lately been residing on the banks of Loch Fyne. They recently made an expedition to the Island of Arran in a small steamer, where they spent the day. When returning in the evening, the sky became overcast, the weather stormy, and the night dark. When near the entrance to Loch Fyne they were suddenly startled by the cry, "Breakers ahead!" and, before the steamboat's course could be altered, they were aground upon rocks. The captain informed them that, the boat being iron, it would be dangerous to back her off, for fear she might have received such injuries as to make it impossible to keep her afloat. They were, therefore, obliged to land in the small boat. When the party reached the shore a new difficulty presented itself. They discovered that they had landed, not upon the mainland, but upon a rock which might possibly be covered by the flowing tide. They soon, however, found that they were safe at least from that danger. They were able to construct a tent by means of some tarpauling, and under the shelter which it afforded they spent the night. When day dawned they were soon relieved from their disagreeable position, and we are glad to hear that none of the party have suffered from exposure during a night of somewhat stormy weather.

BROTHER IGNATIUS'S SORE THROAT.—The Rev. Mr. Stuart, of St. Mary Magdalene's Church, in a letter to the *Guardian*, says:—"As to Brother Ignatius, it was my own knowledge that a sore throat did not fully represent the reasons of his absence, which made me say what I did; he had foolishly lent himself to a secret intrigue, which I did not care to refer to; but he is quite welcome to come and preach at St. Mary Magdalene's Church again (with the Bishop's permission, of course), if he likes, when his sore throat is well, and when a certain lady (middle-aged and not his mother) will allow him."

SUICIDE OF A CLERGYMAN.—The Rev. Matthew Jefferys, rector of South Thoresby, committed suicide on Sunday week by cutting his throat with a razor. The deceased, who had been in a desponding state of mind and bad health for some years, did not die till the following Tuesday. He was sensible for a considerable time on Sunday, and in a most clear and peaceful state of mind, alive to his danger, but quite unconscious of the act which had occasioned it.

THE POPE AGAINST RUSSIA.—The Encyclical letter of the Pope to the Polish Bishops draws a vivid picture of the persecution directed by the Russian Government against the Catholic Church. The Pope stigmatises the Russian Government as cruel, rebukes its excesses, and condemns it before Heaven and earth. He censures also the confiscations and deportations carried out in Poland, and the treatment of

the Archbishop of Warsaw, unjustly despoiled. His Holiness condemns, however, the Polish revolution, and reminds the Catholics of their duty to obey all civil authorities. The Bishops, clergy, and all faithful Catholics in Russia, are enjoined to persevere in the faith with courage and resignation, and warned that they do not owe obedience to measures contrary to their consciences and to Divine laws. The Pope, in conclusion, threatens the persecutors with Divine justice, "which," he says, "will soon appear; for the time of mercy is short, and the powerful are powerfully chastised."

BROTHER IGNATIUS IN YORK.—Ignatius and one of his brethren made their appearance in the city of York on Saturday, dressed in their canonical robes. The curiosity of the citizens was raised by the singularity of their garb. They had also sandals on their feet, and their heads at the crown were closely shaven. They visited the Castle (where they made a lengthy stay), and, amongst other objects of interest, the new Roman Catholic Church of St. Wilfred. Here they knelt for some time before the altar, evidently engaged in prayer, after which they pressed their lips to the floor. A number of Roman Catholics were in the church, and, mistaking them for high functionaries of their own faith, bent their knees before them for their blessing. This the "Father" and his brother bestowed in Latin. Afterwards it was discovered who the pair really were, and then their proceedings assumed the character of a good joke.

THE MORAL REVOLUTION IN ITALY.—The *Evangelical Christendom* correspondent says:—"As evidences of social progress, I would refer to the ministerial circular against duelling, the clearing of the streets of Naples of its hosts of tormenting beggars, and housing them in asylums and workshops; the noble report drawn up lately on the subject of civil marriage, which, to the grief of the Papacy, will shortly become law; the formation of an association among liberal men of all parties for the defence and development of constitutional rights throughout Italy, the earnestly expressed wish for the popular election of the clergy, and the outspoken leaders of the press in favour of the suppression of the out-of-door mummeries of Popery, such as the processions of the 'dead Christ,' and hideous 'Madonnas.'"

COMPULSORY CHURCH ATTENDANCE IN THE TYROL.—A *Post* correspondent says:—"It appears that the following order was transmitted to a police official of one of the largest boroughs in the portion of the Tyrolean Alps that separates the Austrian dominions from Italy. Whether it has been acted upon is not known. It is, however, a curious specimen of the mistaken zeal of some arbitrary and misguided pastor of the Roman Church:—"Whereas it is notorious that the parishioner N— has not attended church for a long time, you are hereby authorized to go to his house and conduct him to church. Should he refuse to go, you will call in two assistants and bring him by force. When in the church, you will remain by his side; if he should pretend to faint and fall down, you will let him lie on the ground; but if he should be obstreperous, you will administer to him, as a corrective, from ten to fifteen blows with a stick.'"

THE SCOTTISH EPISCOPAL CHURCH.—An important action, raised by the Rev. G. H. Forbes, of Burntisland, against the bishops and other members of the last General Synod of the Scotch Episcopal Church, in order to test the validity of some important provisions in the Code of Canons it enacted, is now fairly before the Court of Session, and will come on for debate at the commencement of the winter session. The bishops have acknowledged the jurisdiction of the court by "producing" the Code of Canons, and submitting it to be examined, so that the case will at once be discussed upon its merits. Mr. Forbes' chief ground for complaint is the adoption of the English Prayer-book as the Service Book of the Scotch Episcopal Church, and the displacement of the Scotch Communion Office from the position it has hitherto occupied in that community. Some interesting questions as to the power of the civil courts to interfere with the affairs of dissenting religious bodies will probably be settled by this suit, which there seems every likelihood of being brought, at last, before the House of Lords as the court of ultimate appeal, the defenders having all along refused to listen to any proposals made by Mr. Forbes for a compromise.

MISSIONARY LABOURS IN JAPAN.—There are, says the *Record*, six American missionaries at Yokohama. Their work has to be carried on with great caution, but is not without influence. The people seem disposed to accept the Gospel, though the Governor says that whoever is baptized shall be executed. Echizen-no-Kami, a powerful Daimio whose principality lies near Miaco, on the north, has taken a decided stand in favour of unrestricted intercourse with foreign nations, and in favour of progress generally. A paper has been widely circulated among the Japanese, in which he sets forth and defends his views. Echizen-no-Kami, it appears, expresses himself in favour of the toleration of Christianity; at least, he thinks the danger to be apprehended from its introduction is imaginary. He argues that if the Christian religion should be excluded, for the same reason the doctrines and teachings of Buddhism should have been banished, as they are equally of foreign origin. Meantime, the translation of the Scriptures is progressing, and Chinese Bibles and tracts are circulated. One of the missionaries is educating in English several young ladies on behalf of the Government. The medical department is also rendering valuable aid. The missionaries of the Dutch Reformed Church have obtained leave to build a chapel.

THE LAST MIRACLE—ILLUSTRATED EGGS!—A letter from Paris says:—"Last Saturday the town of Saumur was thrown into a state of the utmost excitement, yet neither Vermouth, Fille de l'Air, nor the Emperor had made their appearance. Neither less nor more than a miracle had taken place—not, indeed, that a dying person had been restored, or a beatific vision had rejoiced the soul of some true daughter of the Church. It was simply a hen that had suddenly acquired the power of laying illustrated eggs. Her last performance in this line, triumphantly exhibited to one thousand persons, who congregated in the Rue de la Visitation, was an egg bearing a raised sphere on which a cross, a sun, and a Latin inscription were clearly visible. The attention of the police was at last attracted, and the miraculous hen was put in charge of one

of that respected body, who received strict orders to mount guard on the marvellous bird till eggs should be laid. This second egg proved even more rich in clerical designs than the first, an "Ecce Homo," a weeping Magdalen, and an inscription, this time in French, appearing to the puzzled policeman's astonished gaze. A *procès verbal* was made out, and the affair tried at the petty sessions, and explained by the well-known process of drawing in wax on the egg, and plunging it for two minutes in a bath of hydrochloric acid.

FINE ARTS.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

MR. TOOLE has made another and successful attempt to do something higher in his profession than merely rattle through commonplace Adelphi farces. The attempt would have been more successful and more striking, if the piece in which he has appeared—"Stephen Digges"—had been more carefully written and constructed. About thirty years ago, when Balzac's elaborate but disagreeable novel "Père Goriot" was the talk of Paris, a three act drama of no great literary pretension, founded on the story, was produced at the Théâtre des Variétés. One man wrote the novel, but it took three men to adapt the drama—Messrs. Théaulon, Comberousse, and Jaime—and the piece was first performed under the original title on April 6, 1835, with M. Vernet as le père Goriot. A few years afterwards an English version, called "The Lear of Private Life," became popular at some of our minor theatres, but the play never tempted the adapters for the West-end houses, or if it did, their adaptations were never accepted.

This is the drama (as we stated some weeks back) that Mr. Oxenford has taken and turned into a two act domestic play of serious interest for Mr. Toole. Balzac's novel depends too much upon countless minute literary touches to be easily dramatized; the French play has only vulgarized the chief incidents of the story, and the English version has further vulgarized the French play.

The plot of "Stephen Digges" is very commonplace. The old man is a not over honest grocer living in St. Mary Axe, who has made money in business, and has two daughters. These girls have been highly and showily educated, and against the advice of friends they marry two men of the Dundreary class, who are in want of money. Two years are supposed to elapse between the first and second acts, and in this interval the two husbands have nearly ruined their father-in-law. The daughters, influenced by their husbands, rarely visit their father, except when they want to beg or borrow. The two sons-in-law at last get into serious difficulties, and to drain the old man of property which they think he conceals, they propose to put him in a madhouse. It is not until he is turned out of his lodgings in distress that they find out their mistake; then the real affection of the daughters for their father returns, and the piece ends happily by the old expedient of bringing back a son from abroad with a little money.

There is an air of unreality—of flimsy stage character—about all the persons in this drama, and it has been constructed too much upon the mistaken plan of throwing everything into the hands of one part—the old man, Stephen Digges. His daughters are mere uninteresting shadows, who are never for a moment worthy of the affection and passion which he bestows upon them, and who almost throw him into ridiculous positions by suggesting inadequate motives for his conduct.

Mr. Toole does nothing with the character of the old man in the first slight act that a hundred other actors could not do; but in the second act his natural pathos—a quality which no art or study can give—is brought into play, and is most effective. In one scene, where he overhears the selfish designs of his sons-in-law, and where he denounces them with all the energy left in his frail body, he reached a height of tragic acting not often reached by ambitious tragedians. The intense reality and feeling of the acting were shown in one of those remarkable facial displays which can never be attained by mechanical actors. Witnessing this performance, we could not avoid thinking how much finer and more impressive it would have been if it had been opposed to something that gave back fire for fire.

Mr. Toole has secured this little drama for his sole use, and he will depart with it on Monday to "star in the provinces." Mr. Webster's annual benefit will take place to-night (Saturday), and the theatre will probably be closed for a week, to be cleaned.

The Olympic is at last closed, and the "Ticket of Leave Man" has gone to the country. Mr. W. S. Emden took a farewell benefit, and attacked his late partner, Mr. G. C. Bentinck, M.P., in an address, which has been largely printed and circulated.

Sadler's Wells has opened for the season with old pieces, under the management of Miss Marriott, who has engaged Mr. George Melville as the chief actor. The little Strand Theatre, with its dress-circle and stalls thoroughly reconstructed and improved, and the body of the house redecorated, has also opened its doors for the winter season with its old company and some of its old pieces. A new burlesque by Mr. Byron is in preparation, and a Mr. Stoye—a new, and it is said promising singing low comedian,—is coming from Liverpool.

The Surrey has changed its bill more than once during the last fortnight, and after playing the Rev. Mr. White's "King of the Commons"—a play originally produced by Mr. Macready during a starring engagement at the Princess's,—has gone back to the old style of melodrama with mechanical effects. A new comedy by Mr. Anderson is announced. The Haymarket has commenced

business with the old comic opera by O'Keefe, of "The Castle of Andalusia," and on the 3rd of October a new Italian-French-American actress, Signora Beatrice Lucchesini, is to appear, in a version, by Mrs. Frances Anne Kemble, of Alexandre Dumas' "Mademoiselle de Belle Isle." The play is one of the best of this prolific author's works, and those who have heard the Signora rehearse the part of Mrs. Haller speak highly of her pronunciation. She has acted in America.

The recent abolition of that dramatic monopoly which has existed in Paris for so long to the manifest injury of the drama, has hardly been received with what we may call encouraging enthusiasm. As a measure of free-trade it may be slow and small in its results, but the principle which it represents and honours ought to be respected. Every French theatre now can play any class of drama without application to the authorities for special licences. The Odéon and the Théâtre Française have no longer the only vested interest in the classical drama; and a melodramatic house, like the Porte St. Martin, can amuse its patrons with Italian opera. This is not as great a boon as the abolition of the State censorship of plays would be, but still it is a step in the right direction. The present Emperor of the French is the only Sovereign in Europe who is converted to free-trade, and he acts upon his convictions and those of his tutor, M. Michel Chevalier, as rapidly as the people he governs will allow him to act. With more encouragement he would, doubtless, do more.

The liberty of the theatres has shown little fruit at present, beyond a long piece of ridicule in six acts and many tableaux now being performed at the Théâtre des Variétés. This drama, which is called "The Liberty of the Theatres," is written to show the absurdity of a state of things under which Molière may be performed at an eating-house and Corneille in a booth at a fair. Amongst other scenes a restaurant is represented where a drama is played while the dinner is being served, and where the actors at last leap off the stage and hob-nob with the audience. This, of course, is nothing more than a *reductio ad absurdum*, but even if such things should happen under the new rule, who would be injured? The established theatres have done quite as much to degrade the drama as any dramatic restaurant could do, and the Variétés is the last house in Paris which anyone would regard as a model theatre. Its pieces are slight and trashy; its actors, with one or two exceptions, are of the lowest class; and its managers are always ready to engage any music-hall celebrity. They have had Charles Mathews, it is true, and will have him again in "L'Homme Blasé" ("Used Up"), but they have also had the original "Nerves," and have now got the "fairy fountain." An old pantomime, called "The Seven Castles of the Devil," into which Mr. Tom Taylor dipped for part of his unsuccessful "Morality," has been revived at the Théâtre Imperial du Chatelet. In theatrical Paris this is the only house, if we except the Théâtre Lyrique, where the audience can sit, hear, see, and breathe in comfort. The prices of the Paris theatres are high, the acting is often vastly overrated, the pieces are long and tiresome, and yet the Parisians still believe in theatrical monopolies.

THE LATE FREDERICK ROBSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "LONDON REVIEW."

SIR,—In your notice of Mr. Sala's sketch of the life of the above celebrated actor, it appears as though the Grecian Saloon was the first place where Mr. Robson appeared to a London audience. Will you permit me to say that I saw him perform the part of Prince Bowbell in the farce of "The Illustrious Stranger," at a small theatre in Shoreditch (I think it was the original Standard theatre) previous to his appearing at the Grecian? It was, I remember, an exceedingly humorous performance, and created an immense amount of laughter.

If you think this fact is worthy of a place among those which you think Mr. Sala might be glad of for his second edition, it is at your service.

I remain, Sir, yours respectfully,

A CASUAL PLAYGOER.

SCIENCE.

THE subject of the physiological action of the alkaloids of opium, which was lately discussed in a memoir of M. Claude Bernard, now receives the attention of another and less-known experimenter. M. Ozanam does not quite concur in the opinions of the former *savant*, and thus sums up the conclusions warranted by the results of his own investigations:—

Therapeutically, opium contains two classes of constituents. (a) calmate substances; *morphine*, *opianine*, and *narceine*: (b) excitant substances; *narcotine* and *thebaine*: (c) mixed substances, which are alternately excitant and calmate; *codeine*. Examined from a point of view relating to *anatomical localisation*, each element of opium may be said to have, besides a more or less marked general action, a sort of elective affinity for some special division of the nervous system: thus, *morphine*, *opianine*, and *narcotine*, affect the hemispheres of the brain, *codeine* operates upon the cerebellum and rachidian bulbs, *thebaine* acts upon the superior or cervico-dorsal part of the spinal chord, and *narceine* upon the lumbar portion. From these qualities opium constitutes a most valuable remedy, and whilst each of its elements would, if taken separately, produce too exciting or depressing effects, when they are combined they naturally correct each other—a fact whose importance has not yet been appreciated by practical physicians.

A giant gun has recently been manufactured in America. It is of 22-inch calibre, and was cast successfully on Rodman's principle at Pittsburg. In order to make this monster piece of ordnance, which will throw a solid shot of a thousand pounds, 104 tons of metal were melted, though the gun when completed will only weigh 56 tons. The essential feature of this system of casting is to cool the iron mass from the interior by means of a stream of water, which is sent to the bottom of the bore in a properly protected pipe, while the exterior is kept hot by a fire round it. In this instance, air was substituted for the water after a certain length of time, as the latter was found to lower the temperature of the metal too quickly. The running of the iron occupied only twenty-one and a half minutes, and the gun was ready for the lathe in a fortnight. It is found, moreover, that this class of huge guns is not liable to burst, the 25-inch at Fort Monroe having been already fired 505 times.

A paper has been read before the British Association by Dr. Richardson on the question of the influence of tobacco-smoking upon the system. In this the Doctor argues that the use of tobacco is injurious to young persons, less so to people of older growth, and is rather conservative in its operation upon the frame of the aged. The most injurious effects are those shown in the diminution of sensation and in the operation on the retina. The habit of smoking should not be indulged by females, as it would tend to deteriorate their offspring, and hence affect the strength of the nation.

It appears that the Royal Geographical Society has sent out a supply of instruments and apparatus to M. Du Chaillu, who, on landing at Cape Lopez, with the intention of verifying his discoveries, unfortunately lost the valuable instruments he had taken with him for that purpose.

The Anthropological Society of Paris offers a prize of 500 francs for the best original memoir on a subject connected with anthropology. This prize, which is a biennial one, was founded by M. Ernest Godard, and will be awarded in May, 1865. The essays may be written or printed in any of the following languages,—Latin, French, English, German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish.

The Rev. W. R. Bowditch, of Wakefield, has suggested a very ingenious means of supplying high-pressure pure air to the lights in mines. He proposes to condense the air by a pump or other suitable apparatus, and convey it in pipes to a receiver, and thence to the light to be supplied, or directly from the condenser to the light. The latter exposed, or in a safety-lamp, is placed in a lantern which has an aperture for the admission of the pure air, and another for the exit of the surplus air and products of combustion. The condensed air is conducted through a pipe, which fits tightly into the lantern, and by this air combustion is supported. The air being supplied to the lantern under pressure, prevents the entry of fire-damp or other dangerous gas that may surround the lantern. Air, under pressure, is apt to extinguish lights supplied with it, and to flow to waste, if the current be not regulated; to prevent this, Mr. Bowditch recommends passing it through a pipe obstructed by screw-plugs, or by other appropriate impediments, so that its flow may be regulated according to the supply needed.

Our belief (expressed in a late number) that M. Dubrunfant did not precede Professor Graham in the discovery of dialysis, has been fully corroborated by the evidence adduced in the letter of "S. S.," in last week's impression. It is very clear that the process of dialysis should not be employed in the manner which the French patentee describes.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

PANICS.

THE moment of a panic, whether in the field of battle or in the money market, is one of unreasoning fear, and works such wholesale destruction of plan and organization for the moment, that skill and courage must stand by and let fear and confusion have their way.

But these fearful moments are produced by well-known causes. At Waterloo the French soldiers were promised the support of Grouchy, who, they were told, had already joined the French right, but they found the Prussians instead. They lost confidence in their officers and themselves at the moment when victory was hopeless, and panic converted a defeat into a rout. So also in the money-market people are told this, that, and the other, which turns out to be false, they lose all confidence, and a panic is established. But, in both cases, the panic is preceded by defeat, but by a defeat which, although of a certain measure and gravity, may be followed by better fortune next day. A defeat may be retrieved, for organisation remains, but a panic dissolves the body corporate, and leaves only *disjecta membra* to operate upon at some future time. In a defeat so much money, or so many men and guns, or such a position is lost, and the general or the operator retires with a diminished army or less money, to make new combinations, to defend what is left, or, perhaps, to renew the attack in another quarter with a happier result, and with reinforcements which courage and energy may have supplied.

Panics in the money-market do not arise from trading but from speculating. And there is a pretty close analogy here between war and commerce. A panic in the field of battle never arises when generals fight fairly for "who shall" in a campaign. The military speculator comes forward and fights in disregard of all good rules of strategy for something beyond the ordinary prizes of war. Thus at Waterloo Napoleon was not defending France

from invasion, but risking all for a crown; and at Bull Run General M'Dowell fought for no military necessity, but, to please the newspapers and the public, he embarked in a gambling enterprise of which he knew but little. In either case battle was joined for other than the pure military reason of defence from invasion, or the putting down the Confederacy of the Southern States. Napoleon did not fight or manœuvre for the defence of France, as another General acting under a Government at Paris would have done, but for a crown—a prize for which he gambled, and for which a speedy and brilliant victory was necessary. So also General M'Dowell attacked the Confederates with an undisciplined army, not because he thought that the road to success, but because the New York mob and press imperatively demanded a fight. Any General may be defeated, but routs and panics only happen to them when they turn gamblers—just as in the money-market, it is not trade, not even overtrading, which produces panic, but gambling or speculation.

At this moment some people apprehend a panic in the cotton market as a probable consequence of an early peace in America. We shall not hazard an opinion as to the occurrence of such an event further than to say that as threatened men live long, so a panic well foretold may, perhaps, fail altogether, or may not stab out all the life of even the speculators in cotton. But so far as a panic or even a very serious crisis is concerned, we do venture to foretell confidently, that although the trader may be tried it is the speculator, not the trader, who will be ruined. The dealer in cotton and the manufacturer of cotton goods, may so far have speculated as to be found with a larger stock on hand than the necessities of his trade may require. He is to that extent a speculator. But the dealer or manufacturer is not likely to err greatly in this way. He will, no doubt, suffer by the panic, if it comes—he will be a loser, inasmuch as he has been a speculator—but, if he has not sunk his character as trader or manufacturer in that of speculator, he will be like the General who is defeated, and retires from the field, but is able to show fight next day with reinforcements or in a better position. They who will be ruined will be the speculators—those who are holders of cotton for a rise, and who have besides embarked all their credit as well as their capital on holding on against adverse prices. These men will, no doubt, by their fall damage others, perhaps drag them down with them. But speculators deal with each other. "Show me your company, and I'll tell you what you are," and "Birds of a feather flock together," are as true as anything short of Gospel. The speculator does not often ruin the trader. His co-speculator and the smaller people who depend on him, and have trusted to his appearance of wealth, are his co-sufferers.

It is the same in other fields of speculation. The trader generally falls on his feet, it is the speculator who is ruined. No bank ever yet came to grief by receiving deposits and discounting, even too freely, the commercial bills of its customers. The history of all banking failures is unique. A bank lends some one too much money, and when it finds this out it lends him some more, not for the sake of using the money, but to bolster up itself and its customer together. In fact, the bank begins to speculate in cotton, or in building, or in something or another out of its own line, in the person of its customer, and they both come to grief together. If the bank had stopped when it first took alarm, even if it had not taken the alarm as soon as it should have done, it might, perhaps, have been a loser, but it would have gone on.

It is a consoling fact for a nation of traders, that people are seldom ruined by trading. The exchange of commodities is, in the main, profitable. Even when a panic has affected trade pretty universally, and the failures of large houses are announced day by day, subsequent examination has always shown that the traders were speculators in disguise, and have been unwisely bolstered up for years by their credit in easy times.

DIRECTORS AND NO-DIRECTORS.

THERE is a monotony in the main circumstances under which joint-stock speculations come to grief, which makes it somewhat tedious to examine them in detail; and yet, while bank after bank, and company after company, goes to ruin, we have no help but to point out the old blunders and repeat the old warnings. And it is also needful to do this, because sound and well-conducted undertakings are damaged by these bankruptcies, just as the good fame of a family receives a taint from the deeds of its black sheep. For how can any man be sure, when he hears that such and such a company has paid ten per cent. dividend in the half-year, that he will not, before another general meeting comes round, hear that it is to be wound up? and this not only when the directors are not knaves, but honest men! When on Friday week the shareholders of the Unity Joint-Stock Mutual Banking Company met to receive a statement from the liquidators, Alderman Mechi assured them that it was not the directors, but the officials who were to blame. And if this is true, and if directors may be as helpless in the hands of their servants as the shareholders themselves, in the name of common sense of what use are they? But how is it that the worthy alderman, as a tradesman, can conduct his business prosperously, and keep such an eye over his clerks that they cannot deceive him, yet that Alderman Mechi, as a director of the Unity Banking Company, has to admit that he and his brother directors were imposed upon, and the company ruined by their servants? If such a result is really possible, supposing that they exercised

all their powers with due diligence, there is no guarantee for any man who takes shares in any speculation conducted by directors. If they are knaves, they may cheat; if they are honest men, they may be cheated. One way or other the speculation comes to grief, and whether A. and B. are minus their money by the fault of the Board or the officials matters not.

Now if this is really a true statement of Alderman Mechi's (and we observe it was endorsed by his brother director, Mr. Deputy Power), we must have a law which shall throw something like responsibility upon Boards of Directors, and make it obligatory upon them to render effectively the services for which they are paid. We see, by the report and balance-sheet presented to the shareholders of the Unity Banking Company, that at various times since the commencement of the bank the directors have drawn from its funds, in the shape of "directors' fees," £2,987. 7s. There is a division of opinion amongst the liquidators whether they drew these sums legally or not. The majority are of opinion that they did not, and at the meeting on Friday-week a resolution was passed calling upon them to refund, by a majority of 35 to 14. We find it further asserted that the fees had never been stated in the balance-sheets, but had been placed under current expenses, so that the shareholders at their annual meetings had no opportunity of exercising their right to allow or disallow them. But let us waive this point, and turn to the services rendered by the directors for the handsome sum which they pocketed. How were the affairs of the bank administered under their government? Very badly. So badly, indeed, that we must suppose the directors used their board-room for the purpose of a sleeping apartment, and brought their nightcaps along with them when they met in council. Otherwise, surely they must have known that defaulters to the bank were not proceeded against; that securities were allowed to be idle for years; that there were bills which had never been presented for payment; that a system of favouritism ruled the advances of the bank; that in many instances no interest had been paid for such advances, and that not a few of the securities were acknowledgments of old loans and valueless bills. Accounts had been closed and written off as bad, which were really not so, for upon one of them the liquidators have managed to squeeze from the debtor £1,000, fifty per cent. of the bank's claim upon him; yet the directors knew nothing at all about it. They were deceived by their officials. Can one really credit this statement? Could all these things have taken place without their knowledge if they had done their duty? Turn to the securities, with which the liquidators have had to deal. If directors are worth their salt, surely they will at least see that money is not lent upon securities that are worthless. But the Unity Banking Company treated borrowers as if their word was as good as their bond; and, indeed, it usually was, for their bonds were mostly valueless. Upon some debentures in the Consols Insurance Company the directors lent £1,475, every penny of which is lost, for the Consols Insurance Company is being wound up. Then they lent £1,696. 15s. 5d. upon 2,000 shares in the Catholic Bookselling Company. Here again was a loss of the money lent, as well as of £150 spent in going to law about it. They lent money on some mining shares, and found, on applying to the office, that the depositor, having made an affidavit that he had lost them, had received new shares and sold them. They lent £137. 10s. upon some warrants deposited by a man who was afterwards a convicted felon; and they lent £4,000 on some land in Kent, worth about £400, but the rightful owner turned up, proved his claim to the land, and threw the company overboard. Indeed, it seemed as if the sole purpose of their existence was to lend while the money lasted to any one who chose to ask for it, and could curry favour with the officials. We venture to say that never were such sums lent upon such articles before as the company took into pawn. It lent £2,060 upon shares in the Seamless Leather Company, the Patent Smokeless Company, and the Patent Fibre Company; of which sum it will recover about £40. It lent £2,064 on a lady's bracelet, a gold ring, and a lady's gold watch, by the sale of which £80 has been realized. It lent £357. 19s. upon some glass decanters and other similar articles, worth about £5. It lent £1,700 upon 125 guano warrants, but the guano proved to be spurious, and worth only £80. Nay, in the full fling of its generosity, it lent £640 upon some wine warrants—the wine undrinkable—and then lent the depositor some of the warrants back again, which he sold, and pocketed the money! Out of £20,000 which it lent in this way it has realized, by the sale of the securities, £1,200; and in bills, old, overdue, and dishonoured, it has left a bundle of faded and soiled papers representing £90,000, as a memorial of the zeal, the wisdom, and the activity with which the directors discharged their duties.

And now these directors say they are not to blame for this wild and reckless mismanagement, this prodigal wastefulness, this shameless breach of trust. It was no fault of theirs; the officials are to blame; the officials did it all. But what then did the directors do? Did they really put on their nightcaps and give themselves up to the luxury of semi-somnolence, while the officials poured into their listless ears statements of how they had placed the money of the bank in this and that priceless security? Year by year these gentlemen met the body of shareholders, with assurances that the bank was progressing surely to prosperity, while in truth it was losing £20,000 a year. Were they ignorant of that fact? and if they were, why were they? Year by year bad securities were entered in the balance-sheet as good assets, yet the directors knew nothing about it. In seven years the company made a loss of £135,000 of its capital, lent upon securities as freely

and with as little prospect of a return as one might pour water upon sand, and the directors knew nothing about it. Nothing whatever! They are quite blameless. The innocents were deceived; deceived by their officials. The officials did it all; examined the value of the securities, lent the money, permitted doubtful debts to be written off as hopeless, allowed debtors to enjoy their peace of mind without so much to disturb it as an attorney's letter. And, indeed, Alderman Mechi goes so far as to say, in spite of all this, that as far as the directors were concerned, no bank was ever more carefully conducted. These devoted men did all that men could do for success, except obtain it. They held their meetings, and took their fees; they appointed officials, and made out annual reports; and if, in spite of these Herculean efforts, the concern went to the dogs, theirs is not the only case in which men have deserved the palm of victory without getting it.

Far be it from us to say that the directors of the Unity Banking Company had any complicity with those who made such scandalous waste of the company's money. It appears that a Committee of Investigation has exonerated them from blame, and we have neither ground nor desire to challenge that decision. But we say again, that if directors can be cheated, and yet be blameless, they are no guarantee to the shareholder that his money is safe. They are, on the contrary, "a delusion, a mockery, and a snare."

THE quotation of gold at Paris is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is 25 35 per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10½d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is rather more than 3-10ths per cent. dearer in London than in Paris.

By advices from Hamburg, the price of gold is 423 per mark, and the short exchange on London is 13 4½ per £1 sterling. Standard gold at the English Mint price is, therefore, about 3-10ths per cent. dearer in London than in Hamburg.

Consols are now quoted 88 to $\frac{1}{2}$ for money, and 88½ to $\frac{3}{4}$, "sellers," for the account (Oct. 11). The official business report is as follows:—Three per Cent. Consols, for money, 88, $\frac{1}{4}$, 88; ditto for account, 88½; Three per Cents. Reduced, 86½ to $\frac{1}{2}$; New Three per Cents., 86½, $\frac{1}{2}$; India Stock, 210; ditto Five per Cent. Stock, 104; Five per Cent. "enfaced" rupee paper, 101; Exchequer-bills, March, 5s. dis.; ditto June, 15s., 25s. dis.

There has been a fair amount of business in Colonial Government securities. Canada Six per Cents. (Jan. and July, 1877-84) fetched 95 4½; Five per Cents., 82½; Cape of Good Hope Six per Cents. (April and Oct., 1880-4), 107; New Brunswick Six per Cents., 98; New South Wales Five per Cents. (1888-92), 96; Queensland Six per Cents., 100½, 1; Victoria Six per Cents. (April and Oct.), 109, $\frac{1}{2}$.

In the Stock Exchange the supply of money continues large, and the demand light. The terms for loans on Government securities were 4 to 5 per cent. from day to day, and 5 to 6 for a week.

In foreign securities the only change of importance has been a fall of 3 per cent. in the Confederate Loan on the report of the surrender of Mobile, the last price being 76 to 78; later in the week it recovered 1 per cent. Greek remains at 23½ to 24½. Spanish Passive is $\frac{1}{2}$ lower, at 31½ to 32½, and the Certificates are unaltered, at 14 to $\frac{1}{4}$. The second class Internal Passive is rather better, at 26½ to 27½. Mexican, at 27½ to $\frac{7}{8}$, and Consolidés, at 50½ to 51, each show an improvement of $\frac{1}{2}$. Brazilian, 101 to 103; ditto (1863), 84 to 86; Buenos Ayres, 91 to 93; ditto (small), 37 to 39; Chilean (6 per cent.), 101 to 103; ditto (4½ per cent.), 81 to 83; Colombian, 79 to 81; Danish (1864), 91 to 93; Ecuador, 11½ to 12½ ex div.; Egyptian, 95 to 97 ex div.; Greek (Coupons), 9½ to 10½; Mexican (1864), 25½ to 25¾; ditto, Scrip, 7 to 5 dis.; ditto, French Scrip, 8 to 6 dis.; Moorish, 91 to 93; New Granada, 12 to 13; ditto (2 per cent.), 27 to 29; ditto, Deferred, 7 to 7½; Peruvian (1862), 77 to 79; Portuguese (1853), 46½ to 47½; Russian (1822), 89 to 91 ex div.; ditto (1850), 84 to 85; ditto (3 per cent.), 54 to 55; ditto (Anglo-Dutch), 88½ to 88¾; ditto, Scrip, 3 to 3½ prem.; Sardinian, 84 to 85; Spanish, 49 to 49½; ditto (Deferred), 42½ to 43½; Turkish (1858), 68½ to 69 ex div.; ditto (4 per cent.), 99 to 100; Venezuela (3 per cent.), 21½ to 22½; ditto (1½ per cent.), 11 to 12; and Italian, 66½ to 66¾.

Joint-stock bank shares have been dealt in to an average extent. The market, however, has been by no means brisk, and the values in some cases indicated a tendency towards heaviness. Subjoined are given the principal bargains, viz.:—City Bank, 125; British North American, 46; London Joint-stock, 45½; London and Westminster, 97, 96½, and 95¾; National Provincial of England, 146; Ditto, new shares, 42½ and 43; Bank of Australasia, 72¾; Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, 37½; English, Scottish, and Australian Chartered, 20½; Union of Australia, 51½; Bank of Hindustan, China, and Japan, 31.

The movements of the precious metals during the past week have been on an extensive scale, both as regards the imports and exports. The former amounted to about £825,727, including £113,000 from Australia by the *Garrawalt*; £4,380 from New York by the *Asia*, £25,948 by the *Etna*, and £17,360 by the *China*; the *Athenian*, from the West Coast of Africa, brought £2,704; the *Tasmanian*, from the West Indies and the Pacific, £437,335; and about £225,000 in silver has been received from the Continent. The exports have been £277,950 to Bombay by the *Ripon*; £50,000 in gold has been sent to Portugal; and there have been remittances to the Continent through private sources estimated at £629,760, the total amounting to £957,710.

The Peninsular and Oriental steamer *Poonah* takes out to India and China £147,984. Of this amount £120,910 is silver, and £27,074 gold. The shipments are destined as follows:—India, £87,404; China and the Straits, £37,030; Mauritius, £20,000; Aden and Galle, £3,550.

The average stock of bullion held by the Bank of England in both departments during the month ending the 17th of August was £12,802,451, being a decrease of £947,882 as compared with the previous month, and a decrease of £2,125,097 when compared with the same period last year.

The biddings for £300,000 in bills on India took place on the 21st inst., at the Bank of England. The proportions allotted were—to Calcutta £177,700, to Bombay £120,000, and to Madras £2,300. The minimum price was, as before, 1s. 11½d. per rupee on Calcutta and Madras, and 1s. 11½d. on Bombay. The applications within the limits amounted to £980,000. Tenders on Calcutta and Madras at 2s. will receive about 23 per cent., on Bombay at 2s. ½d. about 60 per cent., and all above these prices in full. These terms indicate a diminished demand for remittances to the East. On the last occasion the lowest of the successful tenders was 2s. 1½d. on Calcutta, and 2s. 1½d. on Bombay, and the applications amounted to £1,300,000.

Some amount of Mexican dollars out of the late arrivals were sold at 60½d. per oz., being a decline of ¾d. from the price obtained for the chief part of the large quantity brought by the *Shannon* about a fortnight since.

The committee of the Stock Exchange have appointed the following special settling days:—Monday, September 26, European Central Railway Company (Limited), for bargains entered into on and after April 23; Tuesday, September 27, Bank of London New £100 Shares, and Imperial Mexican Railway Company (Limited), for bargains entered into on and after 1st September—all three companies' shares to be marked. The following securities are to be marked in the official list twice a week:—Indian Tramway (Limited), Hammersmith and City Railway Company, and original and preference shares.

Notice is given that the Anglo-Austrian Bank will be prepared to pay on and after the 1st of October, out of realized net profits, as interest for the first six months of the current year, the sum of 3s. 6d. per share free of income-tax.

A call of £5, payable half as capital and half as premium, is to be paid on the shares of the Commercial Bank Corporation of India and the East by the 8th of October.

The following is the present state of the cotton market compared with the corresponding period of last year:—Increase of imports, 621,450 lb; increase of quantity taken for consumption, 213,220 lb; increase of stock, 222,300 lb; increase of quantity taken for export, 83,396 lb; cotton at sea—for the kingdom, 471,000 lb.

The general business of the Port of London last week continued moderately active. At the Custom House 236 vessels were announced as having arrived from foreign ports. There were 2 from Ireland, and 119 colliers. The entries outwards were 115, and those cleared with cargo 113, besides which 24 were dispatched in ballast. The departures for the Australian colonies were 5 vessels, viz.—2 to Sydney, of 1,723 tons; 1 to Port Philip, of 1,041 tons; and 2 to New Zealand, of 1,844 tons; the total amounting to 4,608 tons.

WOOL.—The value of the sheep and lambs' wool imported to June 30 this year was £5,360,228, against £4,757,771 to the corresponding date of 1863, and £4,250,640 to the corresponding date of 1862. The quantities imported to June 30 this year were 69,935,204 lb, against 70,684,679 lb to the corresponding date of 1863, and 62,695,506 lb to the corresponding date of 1862. Thus, while the quantity received was rather less, the value of the imports was considerably greater. The receipts of wool from the chief sources of supply to June 30 this year compare as follows with the corresponding half of 1863:—The Hanse Towns and other parts of Europe, 11,570,634 lb, against 10,879,413 lb in 1863; British possessions in South Africa, 7,793,428 lb, against 6,626,777 lb in 1863; British India, 4,407,794 lb, against 5,912,933 lb in 1863; Australia, 38,260,962 lb, against 36,683,937 lb in 1863; and other countries, 7,902,386 lb, against 10,581,619 lb in 1863. The receipts from Australia were only 34,309,194 lb in the first half of 1862, so that they are steadily extending year by year; in fact, but for the astonishing development of Australian supplies, the British woollen manufacturing interest would find its operations sadly curtailed. The deliveries of alpaca and llama wool to June 30 this year were 1,046,025 lb, against 1,192,479 lb to the corresponding date of 1863, and 1,058,396 lb to the corresponding date of 1862; the values were £129,742, £143,272, and £126,357 respectively. These figures show that in the matter of our wool supply we must still rely upon that old-fashioned but invaluable animal—the sheep.

At Paris the financial week has exhibited little improvement. At the Bourse not much actual business has been effected. The same caution and indecision that appear to have paralysed all action for the last two or three weeks are maintained. It is said that Spain has obtained a loan from the Crédit Mobilier at the high rate of interest of 11 per cent. The accounts of the week of the Bank of France give a diminution of 7½ millions in the metallic reserve. The amount of notes due has scarcely varied, being 409,910f. to 561,361f. of the week

before. The discount accommodation has increased 5½ millions, being 10½ millions more in Paris, and 5 less in the branch banks. The advances on bullion, rente, and railway securities, have scarcely varied. On the side of the liabilities the notes in circulation have increased 9½ millions. The discount current of the Treasury presents an augmentation of 4½ millions; private accounts are 9½ millions less in Paris, and 3 millions more in the departments. The whole amount of the metallic reserve at present is 273½ millions, to 767½ millions of notes in circulation. There is a rumour that the Italian government is contemplating an early appeal to the money market for a new loan, the amount of which, having regard to the heavy expenditure of the government, would doubtless be large. It is presumed that the bulk of the loan, whenever the condition of the money market allows it to be introduced, will be taken, as heretofore, in Italy and Paris, but perhaps subscriptions may also be invited in London.

LETTERS from Hamburg state that the chief bankers of that city have recently petitioned the Senate to take measures to secure the retention of sufficient silver. They propose—1st, to abolish the one per mille on the delivery of silver coin to the bank; 2nd, to make the assays in the wet manner as elsewhere; 3rd, to order the assayers to report the full contents of silver bars tried by them. The rate of discount still remained at 7 per cent. The drain of silver had been chiefly caused by the quantity of paper afloat on that place, arising from the various financial companies and industrial undertakings launched abroad.

THE letters from Frankfort mention that the advance in the rate of discount to 5½ per cent. by the Bank of Frankfort was in consequence of the heavy demands from Bavaria, where the bank at Munich continues, owing to its recent lock-up of capital, without power to meet the general requirements of the trade of the country. At Frankfort itself, in the absence of speculative business at this moment, there is no local pressure for money, and discounts can readily be effected at 5 per cent.; still it is admitted the consequences of the large investments in American bonds begin to tell.

THE war in America has prejudicially affected the trade of Stettin. The value of imports was in 1862, 45,015,230 thalers; in 1861 it was 45,672,597. The exports in 1862 amounted to 28,342,814 thalers; in 1861 they were 29,174,397 thalers. It should be added, however, that the trade of 1861 was the best that had been known for many years, and was 50 per cent. better than that of the previous year.

A PUBLIC petition has been addressed to the Swiss National Assembly demanding a revision of the Federal Constitution, the provisions of which are opposed to the conclusion of a Treaty of Commerce with France, in order that such Treaty may be concluded in a constitutional manner. The revision is to be obtained by an appeal to the people of Switzerland. The Government of Berne has given its sanction, with certain reservations, to the statutes of the Crédit Mobilier Européen.

FROM the *Bombay Gazette*, Aug. 23, we learn "the share market, after a period of great depression, is again reviving, and within the past few days the price of Bank shares has improved in some cases 10 to 15 per cent.—an indication of confidence on the part of operators that no extreme degree of tightness in the money market is anticipated."

THE *Calcutta Englishman* contains the following:—"Government Securities.—In consequence of the Bank of Bengal having again raised its margin on loans two to three per cent., a step which, following so soon on the last advance, presses very heavily on the dealers, paper has again fallen, and weak holders have been compelled to realize at a large sacrifice. Fives-and-a-Half have been sold for cash at 108 to 108½. Fives at 101, and Fours at 91. The market has since recovered a little, and prices closed at about one per cent. over these quotations. Money Market.—The demand for money continues to increase, and there is a prevalent feeling of uneasiness as to the future which is not altogether justified by circumstances. The fact of an apparent pressure for money having set in so early in the season ought to be rather re-assuring than otherwise, as tending to show that it is owing not so much to actual scarcity as to a prudent desire on the part of the banks and other capitalists to keep their resources well in hand, and so avoid anything like another crisis.

THE Bank of New South Wales, as the agents for the Government of New South Wales, have been authorised to negotiate in London Treasury Bills for £100,000, due 1st January, 1868, at 6 per cent. Tenders will be received at the offices of the Bank up to the 26th inst. The bills will be receivable by the Government in payment of tax, revenue, or purchase money for land any time after the 1st April, 1866.

MESSRS. H. SCHRÖDER & Co. have announced that the bonds representing the Swedish Four-and-a-Half per Cent. Government Loan of £2,223,000 have been received. These were ready for delivery on the 22nd inst.

At Vienna the exchange on London has risen to 116.10.

PRIVATE telegrams from Constantinople state that the negotiations which were in progress between the Turkish Government and the recently established Société Générale, for a loan of £1,250,000 had been partly concluded. £500,000 had been virtually arranged for, whilst the remainder was expected to be settled in a few days. The terms are 10 per cent. per annum, with a 3 per cent. commission, which are favourable to the new company. By this arrangement the forthcoming dividend due on the Consolidés in November is insured.

LETTERS received at Paris from Alexandria, to the 10th instant, state that the Egyptian Government has concluded a loan for 125,000,000f. with the firm of Oppenheim, redeemable in fifteen years.

ACCORDING to the telegram from Buenos Ayres and Monte Video, via Lisbon, the rate of exchange at the former place was 50d. and \$28 15c.; trade was good; at the latter place the rate of exchange was 57½d.; politics were discouraging, and business was very dull.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

CAPTAIN BURTON'S MISSION TO DAHOMEY.*

DAHOMEY has on several occasions ere now been visited by English travellers, who have given their experiences to the world, and thus introduced us to one of the most curious of the savage kingdoms of Africa; yet it cannot be said that we are at all familiar with that distant and not very inviting country. We have heard a good deal about "the grand custom" of the King, and have been horrified by descriptions of the slaughtering by wholesale of wretched negroes; but the latest English work on the country was that of Commander Forbes, published in 1851, and it must be confessed that the information with respect to Dahomey of nineteenth of even educated Englishmen is but vague and meagre. Captain Burton's work will, therefore, be welcomed by all who desire to know something more of a country and a Government having an important bearing on the slave trade. It is impossible to say what part may yet be played by Africa in the history of civilization. A few States on the very rim of that vast continent have in former times made an illustrious figure in the annals of the human race; but the great mass of the territory has hitherto remained the very home and citadel of savageness. Of late years, however, so much has been done towards opening this mysterious region to the influences of European knowledge and ideas that it behoves us to see exactly how the facts stand, in order that we may be better able to deal with the exigencies of the future; and men like Captain Burton perform great services to the community in conducting personal inquiries into such remote and unattractive lands. The two volumes now before us are full of interest and value. They must take a permanent place on the book-shelves beside the great classics of travel, and they will be perused with eagerness, by the inquirer for their solid information, and by the casual reader for their power of entertainment. We do not, indeed, think Captain Burton's literary style remarkably good, being often at once flippant and overwrought; but that is only a trivial drawback from the worth of his book. He has a vast number of singular facts to tell us, and we cheerfully concede to him his own way of telling them.

In the year 1861, Captain Burton volunteered to visit Agbome, one of the towns of Dahomey; but the proposal at that time fell to the ground. In June, 1863, however, he was selected by the Government to proceed on a mission to King Gelele, "to confirm the friendly sentiments expressed by Commodore Wilmot to the King on the occasion of the visit which he made to that chief in the months of December and January," 1862-3. In Earl Russell's official letter to the Captain, setting forth the objects of the mission, it was stated that the Commissioner was to endeavour to obtain the cessation of the slave-trade, to moderate, if he could not altogether suppress, the human sacrifices for which Dahomey has been horribly conspicuous, and to promote the interests of English trade in the territories ruled by Gelele. For the first of these objects, the gallant Captain might, perhaps, appear at first sight hardly the right man, since he is a thorough believer in slavery, and speaks of the beautiful island of Fernando Po having been desolated by "the curse of free labour;" but in another place he denounces the slave-trade as demoralizing. He willingly undertook the commission, and, starting from the island thus "cursed," on the 29th of last November, anchored off Whydah on December 5th. The surrounding country does not present an inviting appearance. The plains are covered with long rank grass, which, in February, is set fire to, in order that the annual crops may be sowed. The earth is then turned up with hoes, and the charred stalks and roots are left to decay into manure. The seed, whether of maize, Guinea corn, or beans, is deposited in holes drilled in the ground with a bushman's stick or a hoe-handle; the first harvest takes place in September, the second about December, after a similar process of burning and hoeing. Not a tenth of the land is cultivated, but the yield of that part which is devoted to husbandry is said to be a hundred-fold. Captain Burton was escorted with much state into the town, preceded by a troop of native soldiers with their "band," consisting of rough and far from harmonious drums, horns, and cymbals, and of rattles made of gourds with a netting of fine twine, to which are attached snakes' vertebrae, the whole accompanied by loud and hideous shouting. These soldiers are capable of only a very few simple manoeuvres; but they compensate for their lack of military skill by the wonderful agility and furious gesticulations of their dancing. They seem to be never tired of dancing, and our author says that their antics sometimes reminded him of a ballet at the theatre. At the ruined English fort, Captain Burton was received by the great military chiefs, and regaled with water, sherry, gin, rum, and other delicacies. Water, we should add, is there considered one of the first luxuries of the table—as, indeed, whenever it is pure, it must necessarily be in such a climate. On a subsequent day, presents were interchanged between the mandarins and the visitor, the King himself being at that time away at his country quarters at Kana. Whydah seems to be a singularly well-policed city. It is guarded by a regularly organized body of constables, who at night squat in twos at different points of the streets, "and startle the stranger by suddenly rising and flashing their torches to scan his features." This can hardly be pleasant; but the Whydah policeman is a very

civil fellow for all that, and, if you have lost your way, will escort you with the utmost solicitude. As with us, an inspector goes round at certain hours, and soundly thrashes any watchman who may be found asleep upon his post. The consequence of this vigilance is that, although the people are said to be among the most depraved villains in the world, crimes of violence are exceedingly rare, housebreaking is rendered almost impossible, and "a man will leave with impunity clothes hanging up in his courtyard." Nevertheless, Captain Burton admits that "petty larceny is universal." We must confess we do not understand this contradiction, and cannot but suspect either that the safety of Whydah is exaggerated, or that the people are not so naturally vicious as they are alleged to be. Mere severity of discipline has never been found sufficient to check crime in a population amongst which moral corruption is deeply seated and far spread.

From Whydah, Captain Burton proceeded to Alladã; from Alladã to Agrime; and from Agrime to Kana. On his journey he saw a large tract of territory, which was sometimes open champagne country, sometimes thick jungle; and he witnessed many of the customs and superstitions of the people, such as fetishism, or snake-worship, of which he gives very interesting descriptions. At Kana he found the King. The town is a mere rude collection of scattered huts, with a population, our author conjectures, of about 4,000, which is only a third of that of Whydah; but the neighbouring country is very beautiful. It is a valley, well watered and richly wooded, and is characterized "by scattered plantations of a leek-green, studding the slopes, by a back-ground of gigantic forest, dwarfing the nearer palm files, by homesteads buried in cultivation, and by calabashes and cotton trees vast as the view, tempering the fiery summer sun to their subject growths, and in winter collecting the rains which would otherwise bare the newly-buried seed." This charming paradise is enlivened by flights of turkey-buzzards, kites and kestrels, by the glitter of brightly-coloured fly-catchers, and by the nimble movements of little grey squirrels, climbing to their nests in the lofty trees. On Saturday, December 19th, Captain Burton was received by the King. Our countryman was conducted to the palace by a ceremonious procession which would have done honour to a small German court. First came the bearer of the royal cane, Bosu Sau, half-brother to the monarch; "dark, not ill-looking, but showing no resemblance to the ruler." This gentleman, who was attended by courtiers and a "band," went through the usual Dahoman greeting of finger-snapping; then solemnly presented the stick to the visitor, and drank toasts with him. A salute was next fired, and the soldiers performed sundry evolutions. Among the great men who formed part of the procession was Nuage, another half-brother of the King, who had a pig-tail hanging down his back, and rode past smoking a pipe. Prince Chyudaton, one of Gelele's many cousins, is described as a man of "prepossessing appearance;" but the Yevogan, or viceroy of Whydah, appears to be a miracle of villainous ugliness, and a great scoundrel to boot. One company of the army consisted of a species of military bards, who were preceded by certain savage and revolting insignia—namely, eight human skulls, placed in small wooden bowls, at the top of very tall staves. Ranging themselves in line opposite Captain Burton, they sang, "to a pretty tune," a song to the praise of the stranger, in which there were these words:—

"Burton (pronounced Batunu), he hath seen all the world, with its kings and caboceers:

He now cometh to see Dahome, and he shall see everything here."

The bards were dressed in rich silks, and eleven of them wore horns, which appear to be marks of distinction. They not only sang, but danced, though this, indeed, seems to be a characteristic of the whole Dahoman race. The eunuch company was preceded, oddly enough, by a Union Jack; and other flags—though not of all nations—were there in abundance. Escorted by these worthies, Captain Burton made his way to the palace, which is a primitive kind of building, not kept in the best repair. On entering the royal dwelling, the stranger and all who accompanied him removed their swords and closed their umbrellas, which are not suffered to come into the presence. The captain was directed to walk hurriedly across the nearer half of the palace-yard, and it was not long before the procession halted at a circle of pure loose white sand, where the ministers prostrated themselves. Every one took off his hat or cap, waved it in the right hand, and bowed several times to the monarch, who returned their salutations. They then advanced very slowly until they were close to the King, and Captain Burton had an opportunity of carefully scanning him. He is from forty to forty-five years of age; of manly proportions, though too abdominal; six feet high, broad-shouldered and muscular, with well-turned wrists and neat ankles, "but a distinctly cucumber-shaped shin." Unlike his subjects generally, who are mostly black, his complexion is a pure reddish-brown, or copper-colour—a fact accounted for by the supposition that his mother was a slave girl from the North, or, according to some accounts, a mulatto from the French factory at Whydah. He is but slightly tattooed. His head is round and well-set; his beard thin, and his moustachios thinner. Though neither his forehead nor his chin recedes, his strong jaw gives the face a "jowly" look; yet, while the set expression is hard, the smile is good-humoured and pleasant. He wears his nails of mandarin-like length, which, says our author, "is useful amongst ragouts in lands where no man has yet been called *furcifer*." His eyes are red, bleared, and inflamed—an inconvenience which, it seems, is not owing to drink, for he is very moderate in his potations, but to climate, smoking, and other influences. He is said to

* A Mission to Gelele, King of Dahome, with Notices of the so-called "Amazons," the Grand Customs, the Yearly Customs, the Human Sacrifices, the Present State of the Slave Trade, and the Negro's Place in Nature. By Richard F. Burton, late Commissioner to Dahome. Two vols. London: Tinsley Brothers.

be afflicted with chronic disease, and he has suffered severely from small-pox, which is exceedingly common among the race. We must leave Captain Burton to sketch the royal costume in his own words:—

"Like Gezo, Gezo's son and heir affects a dress simple to excess. His head is often bare; on this occasion he wore a short cylindrical straw cap, with a ribbon-band of purple velvet round the middle. A Bo-fetish against sickness, in the shape of a human incisor, strung below the crown, and a single blue popo-bead of little value, was hanging to a thick thread about his neck. Despising the bonugan-ton, or broad silver armlets of his caboceers, he contented himself with a narrow armillary iron ring, of the kind called 'abagan' and 'alogan,' round his right arm. Above and below the elbow of the left he wore five similar bracelets; these ornaments were apparently invented to save the limb when warding off a sabre-cut from the head. The body-cloth was plain fine white stuff, with a narrow edging of watered green silk, and as it sat loose around the middle, decorum was consulted by drawers of purple flowered silk hardly reaching to mid-thigh. The sandals, here an emblem of royalty, showed some splendour. They were of Moorish shape, with gold embroidery upon a scarlet ground, two large crosses of yellow metal being especially conspicuous. Altogether, the dress, though simple, was effective, and it admirably set off the manly and stalwart form.

"The King was sitting under the deep shade of the kind of shed-gate before described. His throne, the 'Pwe,' or earthbench, on the right of one entering, was about three feet high, and was strewn with the red, blue, and striped cotton-cloths made in the palace. The two near posts propping the eaves were swathed with red and white calicos, whilst the others were chocolate stuff sprinkled with blue. The left elbow of royalty rested upon a cushion of crimson velvet, with a narrow band of bright yellow satin and lappets, upon which appeared the royal emblem, the cross. The King was smoking the weed in a long-stemmed silver-mounted article of native manufacture; he manifestly thinks there is nothing *melius quam pipe o' tobacco*."

A very lively description of the ceremonies attending the presentation is then given. We read:—

"After the usual quadruple bowings and hand-wavings, the King arose, tucked in his toga, descended from his *estrade*, donned his slippers—each act being aided by some dozen nimble feminine fingers—and advancing, greeted me with sundry vigorous wrings *à la* John Bull. Still grasping my hand, he inquired after the health of the Sovereign, the Ministry, and the people of England, which he and his naturally suppose to be a little larger and a much richer Dahome surrounded by water. . . . Our stools were placed before the throne, and we sat whilst the materials for health-drinking were taken from under a red calico cloth which lay upon a rickety table near the entrance, with legs once gilt. It is not customary to address royalty, even though the presentee be acquainted with the language. The Sovereign's words are spoken to the Men, who informs the interpreter, who passes it on to the visitor, and the answer must trickle back through the same channels. . . . After Sin-diyye! and Sin-ko! we drank in three several liquors to the health of the Sovereign, the Commodore, and my humble self. After bowing and touching glasses, the King suddenly wheeled round, whilst two wives stretched a white calico cloth by way of a screen before him, and another pair opened small and gaudy parasols, so as completely to conceal his figure from our gaze. There was a prodigious outburst of noise. Guns were fired, 'Amazons' tinkled bells, and sprang kra-kra, or watchmen's rattles, ministers bent to the ground clapping their palms, and commoners bawled 'Po-o-o' (i.e., 'Bleo!'—'Take it easy!') cowering to avoid the dread sight, turning their backs if sitting, and if standing they danced like bears, or they paddled their hands like the forefeet of a swimming dog. We were not expected to move."

Of the royal "customs"—the grand custom, performed only after the death of a king, and the annual customs—Captain Burton furnishes a very elaborate account, from which it appears that, although the horrors of these observances have been a good deal exaggerated, and many adjuncts have been put forward which do not really exist, very little change in the number of victims has taken place during two-thirds of a century. The Captain, it will have been observed, spoke to the same effect a few days ago, at a meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. But this, and other features of our author's narrative, we must examine in full on a subsequent occasion.

THE PYRAMID INVERTED.*

THE Astronomer-Royal for Scotland has furnished the latest and most apt illustration of the well-known method of argument which has been called inverting the Pyramid. Taking up and carrying on the theories of Mr. Taylor, the author of an ingenious work, "The Great Pyramid; why was it built?" Professor Piazzi Smyth finds in the measures and forms of the Egyptian wonder of the world evidence of scientific knowledge unknown to Europe before the eighteenth century, as though the great monument had been raised to preserve this treasure from the remote age of its construction, four thousand years ago, to the present day. An attractive idea, no doubt. Why should two generations of men have been employed to raise what is perhaps the most costly building in the world, simply to entomb an unpopular king, an ancient tyrant, of whom in later days nothing was remembered but his oppression and irreligion? Why this true direction of its faces to the cardinal

points, why the exact relation of its several dimensions, large and small? Modern science, looking at the Pyramid with modern eyes, refuses to believe what Egyptian scholars, in harmony with native history, tell of its purpose, and seizes upon every point which tends to indicate some higher object in this vast construction than that of a gigantic and durable sepulchre. It is no wonder that any one viewing the noble mass, amazing in its size and symmetrical in its proportions, which gains grandeur without loss of simplicity, and beauty without sacrifice of solidity, should be unwilling to believe the history of its origin, or, believing it, should still look for some riddle beyond, temptingly suggested by the Sphinx, which sits like a guardian to its approach. The classical traveller expresses the feeling that has struck most visitors to the pyramid-field, when he speaks of the surprise of the Grecian stranger who was conducted through chamber after chamber of an Egyptian temple, until at last he reached the sanctuary, and found it occupied by a cat. Here, again, the moderns have very much the same sensation when they reach the adytum of heathen superstition. When they are told that the Egyptians really worshipped a cat or a snake, and did so because they were partly of Nigritian origin, they doubt that the worship was really worship, and explain it, whatever it was, as an expression of respect for animal life.

A theory like Professor Smyth's may be discussed in three ways. We may ask, do the measures of the Pyramid warrant the theory founded upon them? Could the Egyptians have had the knowledge this theory assigns to the constructor of the Pyramid? Is the theory in itself sound and tenable? We confine ourselves to the first method, and for these reasons. Professor Smyth cuts away the ground from under our feet in the case of the second method, by ascribing the mathematical truths supposed to be conveyed by the measures and forms of the Pyramid to inspiration, and, in the case of the third method, he might reply that all new theories of any moment have been attacked at the outset, on the ground of internal unreasonableness.

Professor Smyth finds himself at starting in a difficulty. Mr. Taylor had already shown the remarkable proportions of the Great Pyramid. In developing this theory, his successor is embarrassed by the multitude of pyramids. A theory depending upon the exact measures of one pyramid, may break down when applied to the rest. The rest are therefore got rid of as less important (which is in one sense perfectly true), and less ancient, which is contrary to the evidence of Manetho, the Egyptian historian. We epitomize Professor Smyth's ingenious argument. He begins by choosing the group of El-Geezeh as that of the chief pyramids, and the Great Pyramid as the principal of these, "by its giant size, its wondrous internal structure, its superior and even exquisite finish, the deep mysteries of its origin, and the hitherto inscrutable destiny of its purpose." Though the bulk of the Great Pyramid largely exceeds that of any of its neighbours, the Second Pyramid has dimensions that are equally worthy to be called gigantic. The former height of the Great Pyramid was about 486 feet; that of the Second, 454: the base of the former was 764; that of the latter, 707. The Northern Stone Pyramid of Dahshoor had an original base of 719 feet, but was only 342 feet high. These measures do not justify the exceptional character given to those of the Great Pyramid. Its structure is certainly remarkable, though the same principles may be clearly traced in other pyramids; the Third Pyramid fully equals it in beauty of finish, and as to origin and purpose, the Necropolis of Memphis contains more than thirty buildings quite as mysterious. But we continue the author's argument:—

"With many of the smaller and later pyramids, there is little doubt about their objects; for, built by the Egyptians as sepulchres for great Egyptian dead, such dead were buried in them, and with all the written particulars, pictorial accompaniments, and strange sepulchral adornments of that too graphic religion, which the fictile nation on the Nile ever delighted in."

This is a mistake. Of all the Memphite pyramids, but two contain any inscription save scrawls of visitors and quarry-marks. The two pyramids that are exceptional are a small one of El-Geezeh, which bears a king's name cut upon a roof-stone in its chief chamber, and the Great Pyramid of Sakkarah, one chamber of which had around its entrance an inscription containing the titles of a king. In neither case was there anything religious; so that, as being uninscribed with any religious formulae, all the pyramids are in the same category. The cause is simple enough. We see, in the portcullises that closed the passages, and the heavy masses of stone that were sometimes added to block them still more securely, that the interiors of the pyramids were not intended to be visited, were sealed up, with the idea that they should never be violated. This is alone fatal to Professor Smyth's theory; but we pass it by for the present. He seems to be aware that there is a strong resemblance between the various pyramids, and it is necessary therefore to find some difference more radical than this supposed singularity in the absence of sculpture. He first assumes that the other pyramids are imperfect copies, and then that the very idea of pyramid-construction was not Egyptian, and was never thoroughly adopted by the Egyptians. Quietly ignoring all the accumulated evidence that the Great Pyramid was, like all other Egyptian pyramids, a sepulchre, he asserts that all theories of its purpose have broken down, though in a later place he admits that "a very slight alteration served to convert the sepulchral pyramid of the Egyptians, into the metrological monument of Shofa and Nou-Shofa [the Great Pyramid]." He then introduces Mr. Taylor's idea, that it was a work of the ancestors of Abraham, which is plausibly supported by the dislike

* Our Inheritance in the Great Pyramid. By Professor C. Piazzi Smyth, Astronomer Royal for Scotland. London: Strahan & Co.

of the Egyptians to the builders of the Great and Second Pyramids.

Having thus isolated the Great Pyramid, Professor Smyth enters upon the consideration of its measures, perfectly unshackled by the opinions of Egyptologists. Having shown its very remarkable geometrical proportions, and laid down his opinion as to its main dimensions, he goes on to ask whether it be possible to ascertain the measures used in its construction. By a very ingenious line of argument, he finds four standard measures—the unit a pyramid inch = 1.00099 English inches, a “great standard” 50 pyramid inches, a “small standard” 25, and a foot 12—the inch being of the earth’s axis of rotation. The height of the Pyramid is, to twice its base, as the diameter to the circumference of a circle. The simplest numbers which very nearly express the proportion between height and twice-base are 116.5, 366.0; the latter is singularly apt as the representation of a circle. Supposing the twice-base to have been divided into 366 parts, each of these would be the $\frac{1}{366}$ of the earth’s axis of rotation, and their fiftieths would be the $\frac{1}{18300}$, and in relation to the English inch, $1 = 1.00099$. These results are, no doubt, very curious; but is there anything contrary to them in the facts of the case?

It happens that the principal Egyptian cubit has been long known from various examples to have measured about 20½ inches, as, indeed, Professor Smyth is perfectly aware. He is also aware that Sir Isaac Newton had shown that the measures of the interior of the Great Pyramid were divisible without fractions by this cubit, and he might have added that Mr. Perring had proved the same of the other pyramids. He escapes the unavoidable conclusion in this manner:—

“Measures of length had been found by Sir Isaac Newton undoubtedly about the passages and chambers, but these were the profane measures of the Egyptian people, and may be regarded merely as showing that the general architectural work was performed by the labour of Egyptians, in so far confirmatory of the Egyptian quarry-marks on the rough stones of the chambers of construction; but that it was no Egyptian who directed the work to its ultimate objects, or understood what it was for, is a matter of most growing certainty.”

But if the dimensions of the Great Pyramid all show the use of such an Egyptian cubit, how comes it that they also express a meaning hidden to the Egyptians? That the former is the case may be thus proved:—The Egyptian cubit, as we have said, measured about 20.5 inches. Taking Mr. Perring’s measurements as given by Professor Smyth, we find among them 41.5 four times, and 20.5 once. Unfortunately, no smaller measure than half an inch is given; but that it is not far in error in these cases is evident from larger measurements. The length of the King’s Chamber is 205 inches, 20 cubits of 20.5; the breadth 411, 20 of 20.55. Every one of the measurements of length, omitting that of the base and those of imperfect or forced passages, and of the chambers of construction, gives a nearly identical result, a number of measures of 20.5 inches, or a little more or less with no fraction. The base may of course from its high figures be divided so as to produce a higher or lower value for the cubit. The measurements of breadth, with two exceptions in the case of small passages, furnish the same result. Those of height cannot be treated in the same manner. But the general result is sufficient to show that in the ground measures of the chambers and passages, except in the cases particularized, the Egyptians built the Great Pyramid in complete cubits without fractions.

Thus there is no doubt that the Great Pyramid was not merely built according to the Egyptian cubit, but also that the Egyptian cubit was so minutely taken into account as to influence the smallest measures in almost all cases in its internal construction. This indicates that the Egyptian standard was something more than a mere handicraftsman’s rough-and-ready scale, as Professor Smyth would make it. When he does not attempt to apply his secret scale to the internal measures of the building, he tacitly acknowledges that there it breaks down. To us it seems incredible that an edifice should be constructed on a particular system of measures in large and small dimensions, and yet in the former on another and independent system, and that, too, without any intention of harmonizing the two. But let us go a little further with Professor Smyth in his voyage of discovery. We pass by two other remarkable computations by which the author, following Mr. Taylor, finds an expression of the diameter of the earth in lat. 45° and lat. 30°, thus arguing that the Pyramid indicates the shape as well as the size of the earth, and we are also obliged to omit the examination of arguments as to indications of latitude.

Having completed his examination of the exterior of the Great Pyramid, and of its interior passages so far as they are related to the exterior, Professor Smyth turns to the examination of the interior. Here everything leads up to the empty sarcophagus in the King’s Chamber, which he boldly calls a coffer, not a coffin, and, ingeniously clinging to the statement of Diodorus Siculus, that the kings who built the First and Second Pyramids were not buried in those edifices, he launches out into the following assertions:—

The Egyptologists, he says, “allow, that in no other pyramid is the sarcophagus—as they boldly call the stone chest, or granite box, or marble hot-bath, or porphyry coffer, of other authors—contained high up in the body of the pyramid, far above the surface of the ground outside; that in no other case is it perfectly devoid of adornment or inscription; that in no other case has the lid so entirely vanished, leaving behind it no symptoms even of grooves or catch-pins, or other fastenings in the sides of the box; in no

other case are the neighbouring walls and passages of the pyramid so devoid of hieratic and every other emblem: in fact, they allow that the porphyry coffer, with all that part of the pyramid where it is found, and which opened itself so strangely to the eyes of the Arabians after three thousand years of concealment, is entirely unique and peculiar to the Great Pyramid.”

In this passage there are almost as many errors as clauses. The sarcophagus found in the Third Pyramid was the only one decorated, and that was not inscribed. That still in the Second Pyramid, and that in the centre one of the three south of the Third Pyramid, are perfectly plain. The sarcophagus, in its injured condition, can scarcely be expected to show any traces of its mode of fastening. The passages and chambers of every pyramid of Memphis, except only the door of a chamber in the Great Pyramid of Sakkarah, and the small pyramid remarkable for a single king’s name, as already noticed, are devoid of every emblem, and there is nothing whatever in the granite sarcophagus to distinguish it from any other of the same age.

Having thus isolated the “coffer,” Professor Smyth comes forward with Mr. Taylor’s theory, thus given in his own words:—

“The porphyry coffer in the King’s Chamber of the Great Pyramid was intended to be a standard measure of capacity and weight for all nations; and all chief nations did originally receive their weights and measures from thence; so that all those peoples who still keep their hereditary weights and measures, though they have lost something in accuracy, and partially concealed them under strange names, and often introduced inconvenient subdivisions, may yet have their connection substantially with that one, primeval, standard centre of the Great Pyramid.”

Our wheat measure is in quarters. “Quarters of what?” asks Professor Smyth, and gives the answer from Mr. Taylor:—

“Four of those quarters make up, in a practical sense, exactly the full contents of the porphyry coffer in the King’s Chamber of the Great Pyramid; and the name Pyramid, instead of being derived from $\pi\upsilon\rho$, fire, is derived from $\pi\upsilon\rho\acute{o}\varsigma$, wheat, and $\mu\acute{\epsilon}\tau\rho\omicron\nu$, measure; signifying ‘a measurer of wheat.’”

Leaving this marvellous etymology to Mr. Max Müller, we have to ask how the coffer is made out to contain “four quarters,” and in what way that measure is shown to have been in the intention of the constructor of the Great Pyramid. The first difficulty is to obtain the true contents of the coffer. Professor Smyth gives five estimates from different measurements, differing 619 cubic inches. He chooses the lowest but one, that of Professor Greaves, 70,982.4, the lowest being 70,692, and finds by the last computation that four quarters are 70,982.144 cubic inches. To us this result is too exact, and is due to a correction of Greaves’s scale. His figures, as they stand, afford 71,118; but this is corrected on the authority of M. Jomard, who supposed an error of .008 per inch in deficiency in this scale. But, in any case, the agreement is remarkable, and in the lapse of time a difference such as would be here supposed would be nothing extraordinary. Neither Mr. Taylor nor Professor Smyth has, however, any ready means of accounting for the capacity of the “coffer.” There is no connection with any linear measure, or any dimension of the Pyramid; but where Mr. Taylor had failed, Professor Smyth succeeds by an amazing supposition, that the grooves in the ante-room are reminders of the earth’s form and density. No one is likely to do more than admire the ingenuity with which the foot-hold thus obtained is utilized. The five parallel lines of the grooves are supposed to be a reminder of the pyramid standard of 50 inches, and the grooves to indicate a vessel of capacity. “Cube, therefore, the 50 inches, making them 125,000.” The three grooves are rounded at the top; next to them is a granite block suspended in a square-topped groove, and hitherto thought to be a portcullis:—

“It is barely possible, then, that one of those things is a reminder of the spherical figure of the world, and the other of its density. If, then, we reduce that cube quantity of 125,000 to a sphere of the diameter of 50 inches, we get five places of numbers, but they are in figures too small to represent the coffer. And if, on the other hand, we multiply 125,000 by 5,672, or the best modern determination of the density of the earth, we get the right sizes of figures, but one place of numbers too much.

“Take, therefore, the five places of numbers, as due to the spherical shape of the earth, but put therein the actual figures, so far as given by the cube of the linear standard of the Pyramid when multiplied with the earth’s mean density, and then we have the theoretical determination of the cubical contents of the Great Pyramid’s standard measure of capacity and weight,

70,900.0 Pyramid inches,
which, reduced to English inches, becomes—
70,970.2.”

This result is only 12.2 below that adopted as the measure of the coffer by Professor Smyth. The reasoning is similar to that employed in the former case, but so much more precarious as to hint a general unsoundness in the whole system.

In order to fortify his explanation of the mystery of the Pyramid, Professor Smyth boldly attempts to show that the ideas of Mr. Taylor, that the Pyramid was built by Shemites, not Egyptians, are supported by positive evidence. He assumes that the Jewish sacred cubit was of twenty-five English inches, and thus connects it with his Pyramid measures. The latest metrologists, however, do not support this estimate of the Jewish sacred cubit. The only cubit defined is thought to be 19.05 inches, and there is no

evidence whatever of any longer cubit. More according to his method, Professor Smyth finds a similar chronological resemblance. The Grand Gallery was seven times the height of the small similarly-inclined passages, and thus typifies the week, and so, more elaborately, he finds indications of other time-symbols.

Throughout the whole enquiry, to the fulness and elaborateness of which we have been unable to do justice, there is to our mind but one remarkable result—and that is, the relation of the height of the Great Pyramid to its base. The rest of Mr. Taylor's and Professor Smyth's theories seem to us to be a mere waste of scientific skill. The reply to them is simply this:—All the Pyramids at Memphis are essentially the same, and to single out one as a metrological monument upon a sepulchral model is wholly arbitrary. Why one tomb should not be a tomb, and one sarcophagus not a sarcophagus, is to us quite unintelligible.

But there is something besides ancient metrology discussed in this curious volume. Professor Smyth, like his predecessor, is very hostile to the French decimal system, and, if he can prove not merely antiquity but a sacred origin for the British inch, he has a powerful argument against the innovators. This accounts for the ardour with which he pursues the faintest line of evidence, and the enormous weight he hangs upon the slightest fact. In almost all cases his results are merely proofs of the manner in which a good mathematician can manipulate figures with consequences that astonish the lay reader. His archaeology is almost always wrong, his facts are frequently doubtful, and his conclusions he can only recommend on the ground that they must have been revealed to the Pyramid-builder. Could Cheops revisit the world, nothing would so convince him of the lapse of four thousand years as the extraordinary theories that have lately sprung up about his sepulchre. His sarcophagus empty, his closed passages opened, deprived of his very tomb, the old Pharaoh might well discourse to the Sphinx on the vanity of human wishes.

"PUNCH" FOR 1859-60.*

WITH the close of the year 1860, the reissue of the back volumes of *Punch* comes to a close. Barring six months, we are thus presented with a sort of Comic History of Our Own Times for a period of twenty years; and twenty years hence, perhaps, another reissue will furnish us, in an equally pleasant manner, with a witty and pictorial chronicle of the epoch through which we are now passing. The end of 1860 was not a bad time at which to pause. In the following year commenced that fearful struggle in America which is still raging with unabated fury, and which seems to have divided the past from the present with one of those fiery brands which may be regarded as History's lines of demarcation. In looking over the two double volumes before us, we are struck—though even the earlier one is only five years old—with the difference between the subjects which interested us then and those which interest us now. Politics have in a great measure shifted their ground from the Old World to the New. France and Italy, which almost absorbed our attention in 1859-60, are at present but little talked about; while America, which only elicited an occasional observation in those years, has employed half the thoughts of our politicians and satirists since the middle of 1861. Besides the mere consideration of convenience, therefore, the division has a real meaning, and we begin our next two decades with a fresh chapter clearly marked.

The celebrated speech of the Emperor Napoleon to the Austrian Ambassador at the Tuileries on New Year's-day, 1859, was the small premonitory cloud which in the course of a few months expanded into the brief but sanguinary war in Northern Italy; yet the year may be said to have opened in profound peace. The subject which mainly engaged attention in England was one that is now very generally shelved—at least, for the present. Parliamentary Reform was being briskly debated in various quarters, and Mr. Bright was agitating the country on behalf of his own schemes. Those schemes were very generally disapproved, and Mr. *Punch* formally broke with the honourable member for Birmingham, from whom, indeed, he had been widely receding for some years previously. In the notes to the first half-yearly volume for 1859, we read that "Mr. Bright commenced his series of attacks upon the well-to-do, setting class against class, and which alienated Mr. *Punch* and other earnest reformers from him." We cannot say that the witty censor of men and manners has struck us for several years past as a very "earnest reformer;" but there can be no doubt that in this matter he took the great mass of the comfortable classes with him. *Punch* began with remonstrances, uttered with at least an appearance of friendliness. In his number for January 1st, 1859, he addresses a letter to Mr. Bright, at the end of which he subscribes himself, "Your sincere well-wisher," but in the course of which he asks:—"Why do you abuse the aristocracy with so much violence? There are more than fools enough among them, Wisdom knows; but so there are in every degree. Old Squire Boots-and-Breeches abuses you in just the same spirit as that in which you vituperate the squires and the nobility. . . . Boots-and-Breeches is an old fool, an extreme fool, a fool at the remote end of that line of which Reason is fixed in the middle. . . . Where are you? How far on the other side of Reason? how near to the left end of the line?" By-and-by, the tone gets more severe. On the 29th of January, we find a caricature in which Mr. Bright is represented

climbing up "a very greasy pole"—to wit, a Reform Bill, on the top of which is poised a leg of mutton labelled "Popularity." In the following week, he appears as a Quaker Cromwell, ordering "that bauble," the British Constitution, to be taken away; and underneath the picture is a quotation from some utterance of Mr. Bright's in the *Morning Star*:—"It is the land which the territorial party represents in Parliament. . . . That is the theory of the Constitution: Blackstone says so. But it is a thing which is not likely to be respected much longer, and it must go, even if involving the destruction of the Constitution." There were other seekers after Reform honours besides Mr. Bright. The Derby-Disraeli Government, which had come into office in the previous year, was making a bid for prolonged tenure of power on the strength of its quasi-Liberal projects. The caricature of the 19th of March gives us a scene from "The Last Pantomime of the Season." Disraeli, as a shopman, is coming out of a warehouse with a heavy roll on his shoulders labelled "Reform Bill." Before the door, Lord John Russell in the guise of Pantaloon, lies sprawling, so that the unfortunate bearer of the bill is seen in the act of beginning to stumble, with rueful face and staggering limbs. To the right of the print, Lord Palmerston, as Clown, squeezes against the window, with tongue in cheek and hands in pockets; and, on the other side, Bright, as a portly Harlequin, with a Quaker's hat on his head in place of the customary cap, flourishes about with an air of complacent satisfaction, as if he had done it all. On the 9th of April, we have "The Supporters of the Working Man" depicted in a conjunction which shows the latter as himself the supporter of a very onerous burden. Palmerston, Russell, and Bright, dressed as street athletes, are being upborne by a carpenter, who is apparently equal to the task, but who has evidently no light work to get through. It would have been better if Lord Derby or Mr. Disraeli had been introduced, instead of Mr. Bright, as one of the "supporters" in this group. The working man, just about that time, was being courted both by Whigs and Conservatives, as a means either of retaining power, or of getting back into office; but it was not long ere he was quietly disposed of, and the several "supporters" went on as before.

The distrust of the French Emperor, originating some years before, and strengthened by the recriminations consequent on the Orsini plot in January, 1858, mounted in 1859 to something like a panic. As the public interest in home questions declined with the defeat of the Conservative Reform Bill, the general election, and the return to office of Palmerston, Russell, & Co., the thoughts of men appeared to be directed almost exclusively to the designs of Louis Napoleon and the various measures for placing England in a state of defence. The Italian war had begun; Tennyson had roused the martial ardour of the country by his famous verses in the *Times*, with the sing-song burden—

"Form, form, riflemen, form!
Ready, be ready, to meet the storm!
Riflemen, riflemen, riflemen, form!"

—and the riflemen had begun to form accordingly. Mr. *Punch*, as usual, reflected the prevailing spirit. He was very doubtful as to the French Emperor having any good intentions in Italy, and he was more than doubtful of his having very bad intentions as to England. The cartoon of July 9—a magnificent two-page illustration, admirably designed by Mr. Tenniel—is entitled, "Keep Watch!" and depicts the British Lion, with his two front paws on the dead body of the Bengal tiger, looking up into the air, where, high overhead, the French and Austrian eagles are engaged in deadly contest. The encounter between the two eagles, however, was just then being brought to a termination by the unexpected peace of Villafranca; and the pages of *Punch* rang for some time with imputations against Louis Napoleon of treachery towards his Sardinian ally. "Free Italy (!)" is shown in the caricature of July 23, in the guise of a classical female figure, holding in her left hand a pole with the Cap of Liberty on the top, while her right hand is heavily manacled to a massive block lettered "Venetia," on which the Emperor of Austria, as gaoler, sets one foot, with a stern and threatening glance. On the Cap of Liberty side, Louis Napoleon is crowning the figure with the Papal tiara, which almost engulfs the head, and manifestly "won't fit." This was in allusion to the Emperor's abortive scheme of an Italian Confederation, of which the Pope was to be the nominal President. The belief which pretty generally prevailed in the autumn of 1859, that his Imperial Majesty was plotting to carve a throne for Prince Napoleon out of Tuscany, was made the subject of another political sketch, wherein the conqueror of Solferino unveils the statue of Italian Liberty, which proves to be nothing better than a guyish figure of "Plon-plon." In some respects, however, it is impossible not to perceive, when looking back at the events of those days with the greater calmness which is brought by distance, that Mr. *Punch* was rather unjust to the French army and people. On June 11th, it is pictorially hinted that Victor Emmanuel and the Sardinians were doing all the fighting, while the French stood off, and bragged of the glory. This was after some of the earlier battles, in which the French had behaved with their accustomed gallantry; and the imputation was really unjustifiable. Nor can we approve of all the hits at the presumed designs of Louis Napoleon on this country. That it was quite right to be prepared for all contingencies, no one will dispute; but some of the cartoons on this subject are extremely undignified and vulgar. "Invasion, indeed!" exclaims Mr. Bull in one of them, "that's a game two can play at! Why, to hear these poodles talk, one would think my bull-dog was dead!" This was said of

* *Punch*. Vols. XXXVI.—XXXIX. 1859-60. London: Bradbury & Evans.

the army which had just worsted the legions of Austria on the plains of Lombardy. In the following week (November 19th), Louis Napoleon, standing on the cliffs of France, holds out a toy figure of a little poodle-dog, which he causes to bark by moving the machinery on which it is placed, and thrusts it over insultingly towards the British Lion, who on the opposite shore stands calm and massive and gigantic, while the sea below swarms with gun-boats. One might imagine from such caricatures as these that France was a contemptible little Power, the vain yelpings of which England could afford to treat with placid good nature; and the sketches become doubly ill-timed when one recollects that, whether rightly or wrongly, this country had for a long while previously adopted a tone of irritation towards our French ally, of which the latter had taken but slight notice. There are plenty more drawings of the same kind in the volumes before us, and much letter-press to match; and we must say they form a very disagreeable feature in what is otherwise a delightful miscellany of humour and fancy.

In the volume for 1860, we find the alarm of a French invasion and the jealousy of Louis Napoleon still very prominent features; and the annexation of Savoy and Nice to the French Empire gave the satirist ample opportunities for irony and denunciation. On the other hand, Garibaldi's wonderful expedition to Sicily and Naples called forth all that glowing enthusiasm which *Punch* knows so well how to exhibit whenever an occasion arises in which he puts faith, and—we must fain add—which has the good luck to be popular. The rapid development of the Volunteer movement, the reconstruction of the navy, the manning of the fleet, and Gladstone's celebrated Budget, were also subjects on which the wit and sage of Fleet-street was very gracious and smiling; and the Reform Bill *fiasco* was turned into some glorious fun, of which the pitying wail over "Poor Little Bill!" deserve especial notice. Among the lighter subjects of the year was the Prince of Wales's visit to the United States during the autumn; among the darker, the murder of our unfortunate countrymen in China, and the taking of Peking. Towards the close of the twelvemonth, the first symptoms of the approaching rupture in America, consequent on the election of Mr. Lincoln, became manifest; but at that time it was not within the ken of sage, or wit, or any combination of the two, that the differences then angrily breaking out between the North and South would in so short a time develop themselves into so gigantic and sanguinary a war.

We cannot conclude the series of articles we have devoted to this reissue without once more expressing the pleasure which—allowing for some few, perhaps inevitable, exceptions—we have derived from renewing our acquaintance with the *Punch* of the past. These volumes are the liveliest, the brightest, and the most inclusive chronicle of the politics and social life of our epoch which we possess; and a hundred years hence they will be to our descendants what the *Tatler* and the *Spectator* and the paintings and prints of Hogarth are to us—a means of living in the past with all the minute reality of the present.

A NEW BOOK BY THE AUTHOR OF "PICCIOLA."

It is something to have written a book seven-and-thirty times reprinted in one's own country, and translated into nearly every European language besides. Monsieur X. B. Saintine has done this, but we are inclined to think, nevertheless, that he is not entirely fortunate in his triumph. Excessive popularity like his has its side of disadvantage, enviable as it may appear at first sight: fairly or unfairly, the public, to whom he owes it, will judge every new work of his according to the measure of the applause they have already bestowed. The thirty-eighth Paris edition of "Picciola" is thus sure to be the standard by which "La Seconde Vie" will be gauged, and, as surely, found wanting. To us, the book seems an elaborate mistake. It is composed of thirty-nine pieces in prose and verse, characterized by the author as "Rêves et Réveries, Visiones et Cauchemars," the title of the volume implying that apparently independent existence of the mind during sleep, about which, perhaps of all writers, De Quincey has told us most. M. Saintine gives no clue as to the limits of his actual dreaming, no guide between his facts and fancies; and his book, therefore, has no scientific value. We very quickly find in reading "La Seconde Vie" that the author knows *how* to dream, and that some of his visions are very striking; but, having once learned the secret of his process of projection, we are armed against surprise, whatever wonders he may pour from the alembic of his fancy. Hoffman would have employed M. Saintine's process in the construction of one story alone, and in that way would have used it with concentrated effect. The process in the present instance is this, subject to some little variation of detail:—Before going to sleep, the author's mind is charged with the memory of certain events in which he may have been nearly or distantly concerned, the incidents of a book he has been reading, or the circumstances of a communication made to him; in the course of sleep, these memories and experiences are reproduced in new combinations,—now as a dream, now as a reverie, or a nightmare. Obviously, there are no bounds to the fantastical nature of the pictures which may be conjured up by this method, and M. Saintine has, in five or six instances, strikingly exhibited its capabilities; his mistake, we conceive, is in not having used it upon larger subjects, in the treatment of which the *modus operandi* of the author might have been kept out of his reader's sight. Such

praise as it is we willingly accord to M. Saintine, in saying that we cannot call to mind any other living French writer who could have played so varied a tune on one string.

The feeblest notes in M. Saintine's compositions are his verses, which rarely come up to the level of true poetry, though they are not wanting in the fluency which is the chief characteristic of the minor metrical works of France. It is evident that he has no special impulse to sing; he sings merely because he chooses to do so, and, as an almost natural result, he hardly ever delivers himself otherwise than prosaically. Two stanzas from the piece, entitled "La Prise de Ptolémaïs," will suffice to illustrate our remark:—

"Je bouquinais le long duc quai
Quand je partis pour la croisade;
Le roi, qui m'avait remarqué,
Me désigna pour l'escalade.

Nous campions sous Ptolémaïs,
Tous affamés, ne vivant guère
Que de millet et de maïs;
C'était peu pour des gens de guerre."

This "Taking of Ptolémaïs" is one of M. Saintine's reveries. He has paid a visit to the Paternoster-row of Paris, the Quai des Augustins, and, with the works of MM. Montmerqué, Poujoulat, Michaud, and Poujade under his arm, fancies himself at the siege of Ptolémaïs, and selected to make the assault. Day dawns upon the half-famished host of which he makes one; he tightens the buckle of his belt, and prepares for the great attempt; after attending mass, he springs upon a scaling-ladder, and, fighting courageously, is the first to reach the rampart, on which he plants the Christian banner. His sword is irresistible, and he is in the full tide of battle when a strong hand is laid upon his collar, and—

"Est-ce un des Turcs de Saladin?
Non; c'est un ami, mon notaire,
Qui rit, et m'emmena soudain
Déjeuner au café Voltaire."

Allowed to express itself in plain prose, M. Saintine's fancy disports itself most frequently with good effect, taking sometimes, however, what in this country will be thought rather too daring flights. In the paper called "La Coupe des Larmes," for example, he imagines himself before the throne of final justice, on which is seated "le Souverain Juge," holding in his hand a shining metal cup, the contents of which he is closely scrutinizing. It contains, the Judge informs him, the tears sincerely shed on his account since his departure from earth. "Up to the present time," he added, "they are few—some children's tears merely. But some tears are slow to fall, and we must be patient. If within a year from this time this vase is filled, then—" I looked at the cup; its size was small—yes, very small; I had left behind me a numerous family, friends, servants, people bound to me by obligation; and yet I shuddered. 'Mother,' I cried, 'if you are still in the world of the living!'—Already the cup was overflowing." Perhaps in this instance the prettiness of the fancy will sufficiently atone the offence of a too familiar reference to the Deity. M. Saintine is not singular in his readiness to make free with heavenly matters, and to correct Providence, seeing things through the half-light of a delusive sentimentalism. He reads the following passage in Joseph de Maistre's "Les Soirées de Saint-Petersbourg":—

"In the vast domain of living nature there reigns a manifest violence, a kind of prescribed rage, arming all beings in *mutua funera*. Even in the vegetable kingdom this law begins to be felt: from the immense catalpa to the humblest gramineal, how many plants die, how many are killed? But enter the animal kingdom, and suddenly the law becomes terribly evident. There are insects of prey, reptiles of prey, birds of prey, fishes of prey, and four-footed beasts of prey. There is not an instant of time in which one living creature is not devoured by another. Above the numerous races of animals is placed man, whose destructive hand spares nothing that has life; he kills to feed himself, he kills to dress himself, he kills to ornament himself, he kills in attacking, he kills in self-defence, he kills to instruct himself, he kills to amuse himself, he kills for the mere sake of killing something."

By this presentment of the case, M. Saintine affects to be convinced that thenceforth he need not trouble himself to do any good to any living thing, since, in the scheme of nature, the strongest animal is made only to devour the weakest. Having formed this conclusion, he slowly falls into a comfortable doze, sleepily observant of the trapping and death of a golden-hued gnat in the web of a hungry garden-spider. In his sleep he is visited by the mate of the destroyed insect, who anathematizes him for not interfering to rescue the spider's defenceless victim, who was about to become a mother, and who by his wicked callousness has been prevented from performing the task which she was intended to accomplish. Before the widower-gnat flies away he gives the sleeper a stab with his sting—or rather, the dreamer fancies that he is stung, and wakes up—to beg the question against M. Joseph de Maistre, and to settle all discordance between Nature and Nature's ruler. "From this day," he modestly says, "above the pitiless law of Nature, I put that of God, and above the magnificent, but disheartening, argumentation of Joseph de Maistre, that of my golden-hued gnat."

One passage in the volume under consideration has particularly amused us. In this we discover that M. Saintine is not a little of an Anglo-phobe:—

* La Seconde Vie. Par X. B. Saintine. London and Paris: Hachette & Co.

"I am not madly in love with the English," he says. "They may be very agreeable people in their own homes; I have never felt any inclination to visit them there; but I have met them in every other part of Europe, and I declare that everywhere, even in my dreams, I have found them stiff, angular, restrained, sullen, unsociable, guarding themselves from all approach like thistles and porcupines."

May we earnestly call upon all tourists at present abroad to look carefully to their behaviour? In our domestic capacity generally we offend the taste of M. Saintine, but one habit of ours fills him with indignation. It is this:—

"The English have their flag planted in the five quarters of the globe; the boiling sea never washes up a stray islet than, before even it has settled on its foundations, and while it is still nothing more than a mud-bank, they stick into it a long pole surmounted by their royal standard; and this same pole and standard must also decorate the snowy summits of all the high mountains on the globe, beginning with those of Switzerland."

Forewarned, forearmed. It comes to M. Saintine's knowledge that, with this impertinent flag-planting ceremony in view, a party, deputed by the English "Climbing Club," is to make the first ascent of the Yungfrau on a certain day. His plan for defeating the object of these proud *grimpeurs* is quickly formed. In conjunction with some fellow-tourists, he arranges to hire all the guides in the district, and to make the ascent the day before the English party is to set out from Lauterbrunnen. He thus successfully forestalls his irritating rivals—in a dream, during which he sets out alone with his hired guides; having the satisfaction of finding when he wakes that the weather is such as to forbid any ascent of the mountain being made by anybody, audacious Englishman or jealous Frenchman.

With all his faults, M. Saintine is a writer who has given a great deal of pleasure to a great number of readers, and his present book is decidedly well worth reading. Several of the stories are extremely touching in character, and told quite in the best style of the author of "Picciola." We would specially point out the one entitled, "Une Petite Main," in which there is a striking admixture of pathos and weird fancifulness. Perhaps the most surprising *révé* in the volume is the one called, "La Chine à Paris," in which the author, falling asleep over his evening newspaper, fancies himself entering Paris after an absence, and finding that France, with the rest of Europe, is under the protection of the Chinese. The transformation of everything *à la Chinoise* is admirably described. "When I awoke," he says, "I still held in my hand the *Evening Journal*—containing the announcement that the little Anglo-French army fighting in China had made its triumphal entry into Peking."

SYNODAL INSTITUTIONS.*

THE author of this small volume would have produced a very useful handbook on Convocation and Synodal institutions if he had but paid more attention to the arrangement of his subject. It is a great advantage to have a book conveniently divided into chapters, at the end of each of which the reader may rest and be thankful, especially if the subject be a dry one like Convocation. Of the value of this piece of tact in book-making Mr. Peace seems to have but little idea. His last work on Convocation, we can remember, was one continuous stream of paragraphs without any break which could answer the purpose of a finger-post from the first page to the last. In the volume before us there are, indeed, two chapters; but the second is so tediously long that one cannot but feel that a few more finger-posts would be most refreshing reliefs to a traveller through the desert of Convocation history. There is also much room for improvement as to lightness of style, and a better arrangement of the matter, both chronologically and argumentatively. In all other respects, however, we are of opinion that this *brochure* is a useful contribution to the discussion of a question which has lately excited considerable attention, and will probably continue to be much agitated for some years to come. Mr. Peace has devoted much time to the study of his subject, and is well qualified to write on it; and, though we cannot agree with him on some points, his opinions are deserving of most careful consideration. He can scarcely be pronounced an unprejudiced investigator on the question; for he evidently belongs to the party which looks on Convocation in no favourable light, and thinks that the Church could with advantage dispense with the existence and services of such a decrepid body. His conclusions, therefore, must be received with caution, notwithstanding his extensive knowledge of the question. He is, for instance, strongly opposed to the late judicial condemnation of "Essays and Reviews" by Convocation, and of opinion that the Lord Chancellor was right, in point of law, in pronouncing the Archbishop of Canterbury and the members of the Upper and Lower House to be guilty of such an encroachment on the supremacy of the Crown as subjected them to the penalties of a *premunire*. He appeals to the usual authorities on the subject, but adduces nothing in support of his views which is not completely met by the opinion of the eight judges given in Queen Anne's reign as to the right of Convocation to condemn Whiston's book. He adds nothing to what was adduced by the Lord Chancellor in the Parliamentary debate, and, therefore, he leaves the question precisely in the position in which that debate left it.

* Some Observations on the Conciliar and Synodal Institutions of Great Britain, &c. By William Peace. London: William Macintosh.

Another point on which we are compelled to differ from Mr. Peace is his view of "the National Church synod" of England. He divides synods into three classes—

1. A National Church synod.
2. A Provincial synod.
3. A Diocesan synod.

With his account of the two latter we perfectly agree. They are no more than "assemblies convoked by the Archbishops and Bishops for ministering the existing laws, and enjoining the observance of the regulations of the Church within the jurisdiction of each such Archbishop or Bishop." They have no power to make laws, unless in the case of Provincial synods, with the sanction and license of the Sovereign. This is admitted on all hands. But what is the first on the list, "the National Church Synod?" Mr. Peace says that this synod is appointed only under the statutes 23 Henry VIII., c. 20, and 25 Henry VIII., c. 19, which empowered the Sovereign to appoint thirty-two commissioners, clergy, and laymen, whenever he thought proper, to consider and regulate matters of doctrine and ceremony in religion. Such a commission was appointed in Henry VIII.'s reign, also in that of Edward VI., and afterwards by Elizabeth. In fact, it is on this Act that the present right of the Queen of England is based to appoint those Royal Commissioners which we hear talked of from time to time in relation to the revision of the Liturgy and the terms of Subscription. Now, are we to believe with Mr. Peace that the Commission of Bishops and laymen, who have lately reported or are about to report on Subscription, is the "National Church synod of England?" We are quite satisfied that such a thing was never intended, and that the gentlemen at present on that commission would repudiate the idea. It is not easy to point out by any precedent what "the National Church synod" *exactly* is. Since the submission of the clergy to Henry VIII., such a body has never been called into action. But, were it or could it be revived, we should say that this synod would be a united synod formed of the four Convocations of Canterbury, York, Armagh, and Dublin. Mr. Peace refers to the 139th and 140th Canons, and maintains that the National Synod there referred to is this body of thirty-two Royal Commissioners. But, surely such a notion is quite inadmissible, for nothing could be more unlikely than that Convocation, with whose consent the Canons were made and adopted, would have so stultified itself as to concede a right naturally belonging to itself to any other body without protest or murmur. The very existence of these Canons is a proof that Mr. Peace's national synod of thirty-two Royal Commissioners is not the true National Synod.

NORTH HUMBER HISTORY.*

THIS is a contribution, by a local antiquary, to the elucidation of a portion of our national history which is eminently obscure. We know little of Britain under the Romans; but we know even less of the period which elapsed between their departure and the complete establishment of the Saxons as the rulers of the island. If, indeed, we could accept with entire confidence the narratives of the old chroniclers, the main features of the story would be tolerably plain. But modern scepticism has not spared Vortigern, Hengest, and Horsa, any more than Romulus and Remus. Doubts have been cast upon the existence of the reputed leaders of the first Saxon emigration, while many who have not pushed incredulity to this point, have at least refused them the prominent place in our history which they formerly occupied. Mr. Surtees does not belong to this school, and, accepting, as he apparently does, the generally-received accounts of the exploits of the Saxon heroes, he applies himself in the present volume to ascertain the site of Hengest's residence, and of his last battle. He believes that it was in his castle, on the banks of the Don, in the district formerly called Lindisse, and afterwards included in Yorkshire, that this chief fixed his habitation. In this belief he is supported by some of the English chroniclers, and in the metrical version of the "Bauk of the Chroniells of Scotland" we have a very distinct description of the land said to have been given by Vortigern to his ally:—

"This Wortigern, the quhilk wald not deny
All his desyre, I can nocht tell zow quhy,
Quhither it wes, thair of haif I no feill,
That he durst nocht, or than lude him so weill,
He grantit him, as my author did sa,
Ane land that tyme callit Londisia,
Neir Eborak, liand by Humber flude.
The Britis all, with housit geir and gude,
Out of that land he gart richt far remove;
To Saxonis syne that land for their behuif
Grantit, and quif thame landis as tha lest,
To plant and police quhair thame lykit best.
Into that land ane stark castell thair stude
Upoun ane craig besyde ane rynnand flude;
Thuoyne Castell gart call it in that tyme—
Upoun ane strenth biggit with stone and lyme—
In tha boundis the blude of Saxone
Thair duelling maid first into Albione."

The castle thus built, Mr. Surtees identifies with Coningsburgh Castle, near Doncaster. There is no doubt that the character of the locality exactly corresponds with the description in the

* Waifs and Strays of North Humber History. By the Rev. Scott F. Surtees, Rector of Sprotburgh, Yorkshire. London: John Russell Smith.

poem, and there are many traces of Hengest and his reputed companions still remaining in the names of the villages in the neighbourhood. Thus, in the immediate vicinity of Coningsburgh Castle, we have "Cadeby," and Cædbad is said to have been a descendant of Woden and a contemporary of Hengest. In the same township is "Hunger-hill," Hungar or Hunger "being one of the most noted chieftains of that day commemorated in the verses of the Saxon sagas." Then we have the parish of Barnbrough or Barnbrough, "Beorn-burgh," "Beorn" being son of Baldeg, son of Woden. And there is also Hickleton "Icel-tun," "Icel" being a descendant of Woden and Wærmund, and contemporary of Hengest. Many other instances of the same kind might be added; and, upon the whole, Mr. Surtees seems warranted in coming to the conclusion "that there was at Coningsburgh an early settlement of Saxons in immediate connection with some mighty Saxon chieftain."

If we admit that Hengest lived at Coningsburgh, there is some *prima-facie* probability that the scene of his last battle would be in the neighbourhood. We have accounts of this engagement, in which the Saxon is said to have been defeated, from (amongst others) Gildon, Geoffrey of Monmouth, and Layamon, in his translation of the "Brut." The last-mentioned author expressly says that it was fought near Coningsburgh Castle, and Mr. Surtees certainly shows that local tradition and local nomenclature tend strongly to show that a great battle did at some time or other take place here. We cannot closely follow the topographical details, by which he shows how well the descriptions given by the chroniclers fit the neighbourhood; but we may mention, as tending to fix the connection of Hengest with the conflict, that "about a mile equa-distant from Strata-ford and Cadsby Cliffs," is a belt of trees that bears to this day the old Saxon name of Rein, and, singular enough (*vide* Ordnance map), this is called "Hengest's Rein," and close by in the immediate neighbourhood we find "Hey-loc," or "Escloc Feld" (Occa or Esc being Hengest's son). And, most extraordinary, if this is only a coincidence, the next field is described as "King's grave field." Without committing ourselves to an unqualified acceptance of Mr. Surtees's speculations, we must say that he appears to us to make out a very fair case. It is certainly extremely likely that this part of Yorkshire should have been the scene of one of the most severely contested struggles between the Britons and the Saxons, because we know that the district was an early and a favourite settlement of the latter. At all events, the arguments and statements of the author are well worth consideration. The remainder of the book is devoted to the elucidation of questions principally of local interest. We could scarcely hope to make them attractive to the general reader; but Yorkshiremen, who care about the antiquity of their native county, will find Mr. Surtees's work a useful and learned contribution to the settlement of more than one disputed point in the history of the district.

PAMPHLETS.

"A TRAVELLER from the East" utters a note of warning to England on the subject of Russian designs on India.* We should judge the author to be a Pole—certainly his English is that of a foreigner; and his real object, if we mistake not, is more to excite the sympathies of England on behalf of Polish independence than to protect our Eastern Empire from the aggressions of the Czar. Nevertheless, much that he says is interesting and important, and appears to be the result of considerable reading and personal observation. The burden of his argument is to the effect that the Western Powers, and England especially, have made a series of mistake in first permitting the partition of Poland, and afterwards refusing to aid the Poles in their several insurrections against Russia. Poland, we are told, was the great barrier between Russia and the East, and, since that was removed, the Muscovites have advanced with gigantic strides towards the goal of their ambition. Regarded by the Conservative Powers of Europe as their great protector against the revolutionary movements of modern times, Russia has for nearly a century been generally allowed to have her own way. The fall of Poland enabled her to plot and intrigue against, and at times openly to attack, the Porte; and the progressive weakening of Turkey facilitated the Czar's designs on the Caucasus and Circassia, now forming an integral part of the vast dominions ruled from St. Petersburg. That Russia should have spent so much blood and treasure in acquiring military positions on the Caucasus, and even south of that mountain range, is only intelligible, argues the "Traveller from the East," on the supposition that she looks upon those stations as so many stepping-stones towards the rich lands of India; for the regions themselves thus obtained are barren and worthless, unless with a view to ulterior objects. The Emperor Alexander I. even adopted a precise plan for the attainment of this great end. The plan was that of the first Napoleon, and fell into the possession of the Czar during the disastrous retreat from Moscow in 1812. Napoleon's idea was to raise an army of 70,000 men, composed of French and Russians, which was to start from Moscow, and to arrive at the Indus in one hundred and nineteen days, by the successive stages of Taganrog, Piansbaskaia, Tsaritzin, Astrakhan, and Astrabad. Alexander, says our author, was elated by this discovery; but he made no attempt to put it into execution in the way of direct conquest. However, he addressed all

his arts of diplomacy and all his vast power to the constant accretion of Asiatic countries, and in this way Persia and Turkey were robbed of many of their provinces. The most important of these acquisitions was that of a large part of Armenia. The Christianity of the Armenians being in a great measure similar to that of the Russians, the people were and are favourably inclined towards the Czars, whom they look upon as their deliverers from the tyranny of the Mahometans; and it is more especially to the Armenians, according to the "Traveller from the East," that Russia is indebted for the rapid progress she is making in the far East. Those singular tribes—the Jews of Christianity, if such a phrase be permissible—are scattered throughout the world, readily adapting themselves to the various languages and national habits they encounter, yet always preserving their own nationality and community of views and interests. They are the bankers and the merchants of Asia; and "Eastern travellers, observing the immense number of Armenian caravans crossing everywhere, and such a quantity of their factories in the principal markets, agree that the Asiatic trade in their hands is more than that of Europe in the hands of the Jews." They are devoted to the interests of Russia, proclaim the glory and might of the Czars wherever they go, promote the commerce of the great Empire, teach the populations of Central Asia the Russian language, and even equip them in the Russian fashion. Besides these people, the Czars press into their service whatever men of whatever nation they can manage to get at—even their own revolted subjects, if they show themselves able and willing:—

"In 1824, a great number of students from Lithuania, and particularly from the school and University of Vilna, were transported to the depth of Russia. They were condemned, by an express ukase, 'as the conspirators who planned the change of the government, and the overthrow of the reigning dynasty.' Some of them appeared to be very clever: they had learned in exile several Asiatic languages; and although there exist different chairs in the Universities of St. Petersburg and Moscow for the Oriental languages, not a single man among the favoured Russian pupils happened to be so proficient in these studies as the exiled Poles. How unbounded the ambition of Nicholas must have been, when for its sake he pardoned the Poles, 'who conspired against his dynasty,'—if he really believed them to be such characters. On the representation of Prince Lubekki and Count Grabowski, he loaded some of them with honours and magnificent presents, in order to employ their ability for various missions in the East.

"Thus the learned Kowalewski, an accomplished student from the University of Vilna, was repeatedly sent to China; the first time as the principal secretary attached to an extraordinary mission to the Celestial empire, and then alone with some assistants, chosen by himself. After his return from this excursion, he intended to publish the result of his travels; but the Government took his most important manuscripts for its exclusive information. (It is the same gentleman who has had to deplore lately the loss of his other valuable manuscripts, by the pillage of Count Zamoyiski's palace at Warsaw, by the order of General Berg.) The hopeful students of the University of Vilna, from the same category of 'conspirators,' M. Wiernikowski, M. Heidatel, M. Suzin, and a few others, were dispatched to Bokhara, Caboul, Herat, Candahar, &c."

With respect to Poland, our author writes:—

"The present indifference of the English and French cabinets in reference to the Polish insurrection, are highly calculated to work out a complete revulsion of feeling in the Polish hearts, and perhaps to awake in their bosom, against the Western States, a hatred, destined to accomplish what was foretold by Napoleon I.:—'If the Tsar succeeds in incorporating Poland with Russia, that is to say, in perfectly reconciling the Poles to the Russian Government, and not merely subduing the country, he has gained the greatest step towards the invasion of Europe and subduing India.'"

There can be no question that the eyes of Russia have long been fixed on our Indian Empire, and that her systematic rapacity in Western Asia has had for its ultimate object the dominion of Hindostan, and probably of China too. If our supposition as to the nationality of the "Traveller from the East" be correct, he doubtless looks with somewhat jaundiced eyes on the great oppressor of his race, and it is possible that some of his facts and arguments may be exaggerated; but his pamphlet calls for serious thought, and we shall be glad to see the volume on the same subject for which he is collecting materials.

Among the Englishmen who, by increasing our knowledge of the Asiatic races, and by helping to spread the Christian faith among those distant peoples, are doing their best to preserve to us the magnificent dependency which Russia menaces, Captain Raverty is undoubtedly one of the most sedulous. We noticed some months ago (June 11th) his Grammar and Dictionary of the Afghan Language, and we have now in our hands a pamphlet by him with reference to his translation of the Four Gospels into that tongue, and to a rival version by an American missionary, whom he accuses of ignorance and of dishonest appropriation.* Captain Raverty's story is, that when, in May, 1858, while in India, he was engaged on the translation in question, he communicated the fact to the late Mr. Loewenthal, an Americanised and Christianised Polish Jew, who was at that time engaged in the conversion of the natives, and that that gentleman afterwards obtained access to the

* The Russian Agents in India. By A Traveller from the East. London: William Ridgway.

* The Gospel for the Afghans: being a Short Critical Examination of a small Portion of a Version in the Pushto or Afghan Language, and a Comparison between it and the Original Greek, from which it is said to have been made. By Captain H. G. Raverty, 3rd Regt. Bombay N.I. London: Williams & Norgate.

MS. through Captain James, the Punjab Commissioner, and made a dishonest use of it in a translation upon which he himself was at work. Mr. Loewenthal, it is asserted, at first spoke well of Captain Raverty's version, but afterwards condemned it in no measured terms, with a view to serving the interests of his own production; and the object of this pamphlet is to show that Mr. Loewenthal's translation is full of errors. The subject is one on which we are, of course, precluded from giving an opinion; but those who are interested in such matters may read the whole story for themselves in the sixty pages now put forward by Captain Raverty.

We reviewed in our number for June 4th an American work on what the writer, coining a new word, called "Miscegenation"—that is, the mixture of distinct genuses in man, more especially the mingling of white and black men and women, which the anonymous author conceived would, in combination with the abolition of slavery, produce a magnificent race of men on the American Continent, and establish the greatness of the United States above all other powers. To that singular work a reply has now been issued in a pamphlet published at New York.* In this case also the essay is anonymous, and the author is just as enthusiastic as his opponent in the expression of his views. He denounces as an infamous libel the assertion of the "Miscegenationist" that the ladies of the South are desirous of union with their slaves, and are only restrained by the fear of punishment; and he asserts that the morality of the South is immensely superior to that of the North, of the condition of which he gives an account which, if it be anything near the truth, is most appalling. This frightful corruption of morals he attributes to the unrestrained admixture of the white and black races; and he asserts that precisely the same thing has happened before—in ancient Egypt and in ancient Carthage, both of which found their destruction in what the writer regards as a monstrous defiance of natural laws. He says that Mexico is being ruined by the practice of Miscegenation, and that the United States committed an "unpardonable sin" in not having annexed the whole of Mexico in 1846, and restored the Divine law of "Subgenation." By "Subgenation" our author avowedly means slavery; but he objects to the latter word, because he says it really signifies the subjection by conquest of one branch of a race to another, and not the natural inferiority of one genus to another. The object of the pamphlet is clearly political. The writer wishes to see a President elected who shall put a stop to the war, restore slavery (or Subgenation) to the afflicted country, and so lead up to the Millennium, which, we are told in the final page, "is to be ushered in by a complete understanding of the laws of 'Subgenation.'" Both controversialists—the "Miscegenationist" and the "Subgenationist"—write too much in the spirit of partisans for their speculations to have any value on philosophical or scientific grounds; but certainly both works are amusing, and singular products of the present struggle in America.

"A Graduate in Classical and Mathematical Honours" puts forth some remarks on the Marriage Law,† with a view to showing that union with a deceased wife's sister is sanctioned both by natural and Divine laws, though union with a deceased brother's wife would not be. The subject is a very difficult one, and the "Graduate" unfortunately writes in a complicated and unclear style, which tends to deepen the obscurity of his argument.

Captain F. E. Cerruti, ex-Private Secretary to H.C.M.'s "Special Commissary," sends us a narrative of the events preceding and following the seizure of the Chincha Islands, with an analysis of the despatch of Señor Salazar y Mazarredo, the Spanish "Special Commissary" to Peru and Minister to Bolivia, detailing "his adventurous voyage homewards."‡ The subject never excited any great interest in England, and it is now past.

The Fourth Annual Report of the Society for the Acclimatization of Animals is before us.§ It contains many interesting details of the progress made during the year ending May 31st, 1864.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

We last week spoke of the *Journal des Abonnés*, a bi-monthly periodical of 32 pages, issued gratis by the proprietor in Paris, as an inducement to readers to purchase the publications of other editors through him. We have now to notice an undertaking of a somewhat similar character issued in London. It appears that a printer of the name of Lawrence has hit upon the idea of issuing weekly a double-column sheet of eight pages. He sells this sheet by the 100, or quire, as the case may be, to grocers, tallow-chandlers, and others, who look forward to an extensive Saturday-night trade with the middle and lower classes. A Mr. Robinson takes 300 to give away, and the title of the publication becomes *Robinson & Co.'s Journal of Interesting Family Reading and Useful Information*, "presented every week to their customers." A Mr. Strapp buys a quantity, and, instead of Robinson's name being printed on the title, we have Strapp's. Thus the same sheet circulates all over England, under every variety of

* Subgenation: the Theory of the Normal Relation of the Races; in Answer to "Miscegenation." New York: Bradburn.

† The Present and the Proposed State of the Marriage Law, Theologically, Morally, Socially, and Legally considered. By a Graduate in Classical and Mathematical Honours, Cambridge, of B.D. standing. London: Hatchard & Co.

‡ Peru and Spain: being a Narrative of the Events preceding and following the Seizure of the Chincha Islands, &c. By Captain F. E. Cerruti. London: Williams & Norgate.

§ Fourth Annual Report of the Society for the Acclimatization of Animals, Birds, Fishes, Insects, and Vegetables within the United Kingdom. 1864. Offices, Duke-street, Adelphi.

name. The journal, which has a most respectable appearance, is printed (with quite as much reason as many other recent publications) in "old-faced" type, and its contents are very similar to those of the well-known *Family Herald*. The number before us, for instance, gives the following list of contents:—"Time's Changes," "Questions for a Wife," "Advantages of Matrimony," "A Hint to Nurses," "A Pleasant Mistake," "The Faithless Widow," "Dean Swift and the Tailor," "Marriage," "Duration of Sleep," and a column of newspaper jokes under the title of "Gold Dust." The principal feature is a novelette, of which only a small portion appears in each number, similar to the monthly magazines. This is generally taken from American newspapers, but in some cases an English author is paid for a story, as in "Pevensey Court, a Life Story," by William Dalton, author of "The Wolf-boy of China," which appears in the numbers published in January and February. It is said that the grocers and others find the continuous tales the best for their purpose, and, when the servants and others become interested in the narrative, their shops are crowded on the Saturday night. It is not unusual, one tradesman asserts, for female domestics to ask him during the week whether or no the hero will marry the heroine in the next number, or if he would be so kind as to say when the handsome lord with dark whiskers and white hands would return from Paris. At the bottom of the title is a prominent advertisement of the wares dealt in by the local publisher, and at the back are sundry advertisements of other tradesmen in his immediate neighbourhood, who pay him for the announcements. The head-lines consist of short sentences of the character of proverbial sayings and maxims. An immense circulation has been obtained for the publication, and it is said to be in great favour with tradesmen of the classes referred to.

Mr. John Collett, a descendant of the worthy Dean of St. Paul's, whose "Poems," published by Messrs. Longman some four years ago, and dedicated to the late Lord Macaulay, excited so much attention, is about to issue, through Messrs. Moxon, a volume of elegiac verse, after the monumental idea of Mr. Tennyson's "In Memoriam." This volume is to be dedicated, by special permission, to the author's personal friend, the Empress of Austria, who, as is not generally known, is an accomplished and elegant English scholar, and takes great interest in the *belles-lettres* of this country.

Collectors of our fugitive literature—street-ballads, patter-songs, mournful lamentations, and last dying speeches—in all which old Pepys, the delightful diarist, took such a special pleasure, will have a capital opportunity, during the next few weeks, of adding to their gatherings the broadsides about Müller and the murder of Mr. Briggs. There is certainly not much dignity in this class of Seven Dials' literature; but publications of this sort will have a considerable historical value in future times, and there are those who trace in them the undercurrent of opinion amongst the common people in the times in which we live. Lord Macaulay invariably purchased such sheets, and he used to remark that he always found in the rude verses some exponent of the feelings of the masses upon public questions, which it would be difficult to get in any other printed papers. Two "patterers" (as they are called) have just been singing under our window the contents of the first of the street publications about Müller that we have seen. It is entitled "Murder in the Railway-train," and it is curious to note in it the feeling with which Matthews, the cabman, is regarded amongst the lower orders. For the amusement of our country readers, we give a specimen verse of this street publication:—

"If it's Müller, we can't deny,
on the Cabman keep your eye;
Remember what he said the other day,
That Müller a ticket sold for money,
which seems so very funny,
When he had no expenses for to pay.
They say his money he took,
and his name entered on the book,
Long before this tragedy he came;
Like Müller's, the Cabman had a hat,
and it may be his, perhaps,
That was found in the railway train."

The carefully-compiled pedigree of the late Mr. Thackeray, which was recently published in the *Herald and Genealogist*, has just been reprinted, with corrections (to the extent of fifty copies only), for those who take an especial interest in genealogical matters. The title of the pamphlet is, "The Ancestors and Descendants of the Rev. Thomas Thackeray, D.D., Master of Harrow."

A most curious work, which we may almost deem a burlesque upon the present antediluvian and pre-Adamite studies, has recently been published in Paris, under the title of "Paris avant les Hommes, L'Univers avant les Hommes, l'Homme Fossile, etc. Histoire Naturelle du Globe Terrestre, illustrée d'après les Dessins de l'Auteur, M. Boitard." It is a stout octavo volume of some 500 pages, and contains pictures of the animals that inhabited this earth ages before the deluge. The book is, in many respects, a scientific puzzle, for it gives a good deal of sober matter in a very comic dress, and mixes up serious truth with speculation something more than laughable. One plate represents a fish-like animal with claws and fins, and a hard tortoise-shell upon its back; another gives a frog the size of an elephant—a pretty thing to hop after a person in a country lane; "Chien gigantesque terrassant un lion" represents an enormous wolfhound seizing a lion across the middle as a cat would a mouse. The plates representing pre-Adamite men and women are still more curious. One is called, "Dernier Age Paléontologique," and shows a man and his wife of the period surrounded by the snouted and other hideous animals of the time. Their home is a hole in the side of a "bluff" or hill, which is reached by a stout pole, after the fashion of an Indian ladder. The woman is outside the cave on a ledge, with a stone axe or hammer in her hand. A dog, or other domestic animal, is keeping her company. The man is above, one foot on the outer branch of a tree, whilst the other is stretched backwards, entwined around another branch, after the manner of the ringtailed monkeys.

He is armed with a bow and arrow, and is taking aim at an ugly animal, shaped somewhat like a pig. Those students who care for such inquiries are informed that the publisher is M. Passard, of 7, Rue des Grands-Augustins.

The Hotel Cluny, in Paris, has recently received some interesting specimens of the Italian carriages of the early part of the 17th century. A few years since, a dealer bought them of a Roman prince. They were then exhibited in the Champs Elysées, but the man, for some reason not explained, was compelled to sell them to Government at a nominal price. Three of the carriages are unique in design and execution. The back seats, intended for servants, rest on wood carvings of exquisite beauty, and gilt with extreme delicacy. The paintings on the door panels are perfect gems of art. The largest carriage of the three was evidently intended for State occasions, and resembles in shape and decoration those to be seen at Trianon. It was built at Bologna for a cardinal of the Borghese family, and was used, it is said, by Pius IX., on the occasion of his return from Gaeta.

The Emperor of the French has recently had presented to him a lance, said to be taken from the tomb of Charlemagne. It is further stated that this relic is undeniably authentic, and of great historic value.

On Sunday last, old Cripplegate Church was re-opened, after undergoing a careful restoration. The long line of clustered columns and pointed arches is no longer broken and disfigured by unsightly lobbies and galleries, and the fine proportions of this noble edifice are brought out with considerable effect, and carry us back to the days when Milton, Fox (of Quaker notoriety), and an array of literary celebrities, figured as inhabitants of this ancient parish. As will be remembered, the great object of this restoration was to make the church a national monument to the poet Milton. Some £2,000 are yet required to complete the work begun. The committee of the "Milton Memorial Fund" look forward with hope that the great epic poet, like Shakespeare, may have the sanctuary entombing his remains perfectly restored in all the integrity of existing details, as an appropriate national tribute to an exalted genius, more especially as Milton was fourteen years a parishioner, and wrote his "Paradise Lost" almost adjoining the venerable church.

In the backwoods of America, and in the far-inland settlements of the Cape, money is seldom used as a purchasing medium; sheep are exchanged for pigs, home-made boots for home-made brooms, and we have heard of a day's work at rolling logs being given in exchange for a Sunday evening's sermon. A little anecdote of M. Dumas, now circulating in Paris, states that the veteran novelist has recently been indulging in a barter quite as singular as any colonial "swop." The story goes that the inhabitants of Cavaillon, a town in the Vaucluse, celebrated for its melons, having resolved to found a public library, begged of M. Alexandre Dumas to aid them by a gift of some of his works. A polite answer was at once returned, saying that directions had been given to the booksellers to send at once to Vaucluse the 200 or 300 volumes of his works, which have recently been reprinted; also, that as they had a taste for books, so he (the author) had a great fondness for melons, and that in exchange the town officials might pass a decree that every year he should receive—carriage not paid—a life-rent of one dozen melons.

Announcements of new books and new editions, to appear during the Autumn, are being slowly issued by the publishing-houses. The following we have gleaned since our last issue:—

Messrs. TRUBNER & Co.'s list of works in preparation includes "Italics—Brief Notes on Politics, People, and Places in Italy;" "A General View of Positivism," by Augustus Comte, translated by Dr. J. H. Bridges; "The History of India, as told by its own Historians," comprising the Muhamadan Period, by the late Sir H. M. Elliot; "Memoirs on the History, Philology, and Ethnic Distribution of the Races of the North-West Provinces of India," being an amplified edition of the "Glossary of Indian Terms," by the late Sir H. M. Elliot; "History of the Sect of Maharajahs, or Vallabhacharyas in Western India," by Karsandass Muljee, with a steel plate, 1 vol.; and numerous other works.

Messrs. MAXWELL & Co. announce some important books, amongst which we note "The Doctor's Wife," by Miss Braddon, and a new novel, "Barry O'Byrne," by the author of "Sir Victor's Choice;" also a new work by Sir Lascelles Wrayall, entitled "Historic Byeways;" "Royal Favourites," by Sutherland Menzies, illustrated with photograph portraits; "The Bee Hunter" (since the letters in the *Times* have directed public attention to the management of Apiaries), by Gustave Aimard; "Eccentric Personages," by William Russell, LL.D.; and "Singed Moths," a Novel, by C. J. Collins.

Messrs. GROOMBRIDGE & SONS publish this day, in one handsome volume, with illustrations in colours and tints, and numerous engravings on wood, "Entozoa, an Introduction to Helminthology, with reference more particularly to the Internal Parasites of Man," by T. Spencer Cobbold, M.D., Lecturer on Comparative Anatomy at the Middlesex Hospital.

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT will publish this week a new novel, entitled "The Cost of Caergwyn," by Mary Howitt, 3 vols.

Messrs. SEELEY, JACKSON, & HALLIDAY will issue the following during the approaching season:—An illustrated edition of the Bishop of Oxford's volume of Allegories called "Agaltos," of which nearly 50,000 copies have been sold; "Four Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge, by the Bishop of Melbourne;" "The Lawgiver, a sketch of the Life of Moses," by Mrs. Webb, Author of "Naomi," &c.; "Among the Mountains," an account of the Residence of an Officer's Family at Montreaux during the Crimean War, mainly a narrative of facts, but thrown into the form of a story; a volume on "Temper," first published about thirty years ago, and reprinted with a Preface by the Rev. J. C. Ryle; "The Little Fox," an account of the Discovery of the Fate of Sir John Franklin, written for children, by permission of Capt. McClintock; &c.

Messrs. BRADBURY & EVANS will publish on the 20th inst., in 3 vols., "Lord Oakburn's Daughters," by the Author of "East Lynne," "Verner's Pride," &c.

Mr. BENTLEY has in the press for immediate issue, "The Willmott Family," a novel, by the Author of "Life in Tuscany," in 3 vols.

The first four volumes of "San Felice," a new novel by Alexandre Dumas, have appeared at the house of Michel Levy, Frères.

Under the title of "L'Italie et les Italiens, ou Nouveaux Récits des Guerres et des Révolutions Italiennes," M. Ch. de Mazade has just published a work on the contemporary history of the Peninsula.

André Léo, the author of "Un Mariage Scandaleux," has published at the house of Achille Faure a new work with the title, "Une Vieille Fille."

The programme of a new paper has appeared in Turin, which is to be called *Temi Amministrativi*. It will be written by a society of jurisconsults and lawyers, and will treat principally of the administration of the State.

Amyot & Co., of Paris, have issued a second edition of a work which, owing to the late discussion on the antiquity of man, will be read with interest: it is entitled "L'Antiquité de la Race Humaine," and is by M. G. Rodier.

WANTED A FRENCH READER FOR THE "STAR."—In order to show the immediate necessity for such a functionary, and the nature of the errors he must be able to correct, we select the following from the Paris correspondence to be found in the *Evening Star* of the 6th instant: "*Liberté liberté chérie*," for "*liberté, liberté chérie*," or, if the last word be set to music, "*ché-ri-e*;" "*canon's rayés*," for "*canons rayés*;" "*nouveau enrichi*," for "*nouvel enrichi*," or, better, "*nouveaux enrichis*," or, best, simply "*enrichis*;" "*parvenu class*," for "*parvenue class*;" "*Légion d'Honneur*," for "*Légion d'Honneur*;" "*Maire*," for "*mairie*;" and "*40 fr. £1 16s.*," for "*40 fr. £1 12s.*" There are two or three other French words only in the Letter, but they happen to be correctly printed. Apply at the office of the paper!—*The Stationer*.

THE EXECUTION OF LATOUR.—The *Opinion Nationale* gives the following particulars of the death of the murderer Latour:—When informed that his last day had arrived, he refused to hear a word from any priest, and uttered the most dreadful blasphemies. He had announced that he would compose a series of verses on the occasion, and sing them from the prison to the scaffold. Accordingly he never ceased throughout the whole distance (about 350 yards) singing out in a loud voice the couplet in question. He ascended the steps of the scaffold firmly and lightly, and on arriving above, after deliberately regarding the multitude, he thundered forth the following lines:—

"Allons, pauvre victime,
Ton jour de mort est arrivé,
Contre toi de la tyrannie
Le couteau sanglant est levé!"

Being then tied to the plank and flung into the usual horizontal position in order to be brought under the blade, he still went on—

"Allons, pauvre victime,
Ton jour de mort —."

A heavy sound was then heard, and all was over. The crowd dispersed at once, expressing horror and indignation at such a revolting display of cynicism.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Beale (L. S.), How to Work the Microscope. 3rd edit. Cr. 8vo., 12s. 6d.
Bertolacci (W. R.), Christian Spiritualism. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
Burritt (E.), Walk from Land's End to John o'Groat's. 2nd edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
Burton (Captain F.), Mission to the King of Dahomey. 2 vols. 8vo., 25s.
Cassell's Bible Dictionary. Vol. I. Imperial 8vo., 12s. 6d.
Charmione. A Tale. By E. A. Leatham. Cheap edit. Fcap., 2s.
Collins (Wilkie), The Woman in White. Cheap edit. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
Cooley's Cyclopædia of Practical Receipts. 4th edit., revised. 8vo., 2s.
Craig (J.), Universal English Dictionary. New edit. 2 vols. Royal 8vo., £2. 2s.
Crosses (The) of Childhood. Cr. 8vo., 1s.
Dumas (A.), The Spectre Mother. Fcap., 2s.
Examination Papers for the Civil Service of India, July, 1864. Folio, 2s. 6d.
Howitt (M.), the Cost of Caergwyn. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.
Hume & Smollett's History of England. New edition. 8 vols. 8vo., £4.
Incognita. Fcap., 2s.
Johnston (W. & A. K.), Map of New Zealand, in case. 17s.
Keyseil (Rev. T. O.), Memorials of, by T. McCullagh. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
Lion-Hearted. By Author of "The Gambler's Wife." 2 vols. Cr. 8vo., 16s.
Macleod (G. H. B.), Outlines of Surgical Diagnosis. 8vo., 12s. 6d.
Murray (P.), Memoirs of, by Rev. R. Balgairne. Fcap., 2s.
Parker (Theodore), Collected Works. Edited by F. P. Cobbe. Vol. IX. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
Paterson (W.), Practical Statutes, 1864. 12mo., 10s. 6d.
Priest's (The) Prayer Book. 2nd edit. Fcap., 12s. 6d.
Quiver (The). Vol. VI. Royal 8vo., 4s. 6d.
Railway Library.—Lilly Dawson, by Mrs. Crowe. Fcap., 1s.
Sala (G. A.), Breakfast in Bed. Cheap edit. Fcap., 2s.
Standing Orders of the Lords and Commons, 1865. 12mo., 5s.
Stanford's New Map of Ireland, in case. 10s. 6d.
Statutes (The) of The United Kingdom, 1864. Royal 8vo., 14s.
Tatham (E.), The Dream of Pythagoras, and other Poems. 4th edit. Fcap., 3s. 6d.
Trevelyn Hold, by Author of "East Lynne." Cheap edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
Vernal (J.), Recollections of a Tradesman. Cr. 8vo., 7s.
Weller (E.), French and English Dictionary. 3rd edit. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
Wood (Mrs. H.), Lord Oakburn's Daughters. 3 vols. Post 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.

THE LONDON REVIEW

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CONTENTS OF No. 220, SEPTEMBER 17, 1864:—

REVIEW OF POLITICS.

The "Times" on Rural Oratory.
Penny Prophecy.
The "Morning Star" and its Correspondents.
Brother Ignatius and his Sore Throat.
Croquet.
Caligraphy and the Rising Generation.
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Rambles by the Ribble.
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Short Notices.

Literary Gossip.

List of New Publications for the Week.

Post-office Orders to be made payable to ISAAC SEAMAN, Publisher, 11, Southampton-street, Strand, W.C.

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All Back Numbers of the LONDON REVIEW may be had direct from the Office on receipt of Stamps, or from any Newsagent.

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Vol. I., 10s.; Vol. II., 13s.; Vol. III., 16s.; Vol. IV., 16s.; Vol. V., 16s.; Vol. VI., 12s. 6d.; Vol. VII., 12s. 6d. Vol. VIII. (January to June, 1864) is now ready, price 12s. 6d.

Cases for binding the Volumes, and Reading Cases, price 1s. 6d. each, may also be had.

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M. JULLIEN begs to announce that he has received the following telegram from Copenhagen:—"The GUARDS' BAND and the VOCALISTS have left this afternoon (Tuesday) by the Chanticleer." Immediately on their arrival, they will have the honour of appearing at M. JULLIEN'S CONCERTS.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.—The Session will commence on TUESDAY, FIRST NOVEMBER, 1864. An address to the Students will be delivered by Principal Sir David Brewster, on MONDAY, NOVEMBER 14, at two o'clock.

Full details as to Classes, Examinations, Degrees, &c., in the faculties of Arts, Divinity, Law, and Medicine, together with a list of the General Council, will be found in the "Edinburgh University Calendar, 1864-5," published by Messrs. MacLachlan and Stewart, South Bridge, Edinburgh, price 2s. 6d., per post, 2s. 10d.

By order of the Senatus,

ALEX. SMITH,

Secretary to the University.

September, 1864.

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Information has been received that three more cargoes of ore, containing, together with those already arrived, about 2,500 tons, are on their way to this country to the account of the Company.

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2, Old Broad-street, London, E.C., Sept., 1864.

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J. B. OWEN, Secretary.

Suffolk.—“The Elms” Estate and “Frostenden Farm,” comprising a very desirable moderate-sized Residence, and about 320 acres of first-class tillage and grass land, with capital modern agricultural premises and labourer's cottages; also, a Post Windmill, Miller's house, and 25-coomb malting; the whole forming a sound investment in a neighbourhood affording unexceptionable sporting.

MESSRS. DANIEL SMITH, SON, & OAKLEY have received instructions to **SELL** by AUCTION, at the Guildhall Coffee House, Gresham-street, E.C., on THURSDAY, the 27th day of OCTOBER, at 12 o'clock, in Two Lots, the above valuable RESIDENTIAL PROPERTY, situate in the parishes of Wangford, Uggheshall, and Frostenden, within a short distance of the sea at Southwold and Lowestoft, 3½ miles from the Bampton, and 6 from the Darsham Station on the Great Eastern Railway. Lot 1 will comprise “The Elms” Estate, consisting of a substantial residence, in every way adapted for a family residence, commanding a pleasing and extended prospect, with good garden and pleasure grounds, and 273a. 1r. 3p. of very superior land, in a high state of cultivation, situate in a ring fence, around a model homestead very recently erected in a most substantial and approved manner. Also, a superior Post Windmill, with two pairs of stones, in excellent condition, and having a good trade in the neighbourhood, with a miller's house adjoining. A malthouse will also be included in Lot 1. It is of 25-coomb steep, with modern drying kiln, and all necessary granary and stowage accommodation, with a counting-house attached. Also, a substantial Cottage in two, tenements adjoining, adapted for a bailiff and a maltster, and 4 cottages for labourers. Lot 2 will comprise the “Frostenden Farm,” consisting of 45a. 1r. 6p. of land of excellent staple, with good farm premises. The whole of the property is freehold, excepting the mill, miller's house, and about 16 acres of land, which are copyhold. The partridge shooting is among the best in Suffolk; the estate is interspersed with small covers, well adapted for the preservation of game; the surrounding estates are strictly preserved, and the land being of so good quality in such high condition, an unusual opportunity is afforded for investment by a sportsman or an agriculturalist. Possession may be had at Michaelmas, 1865. Particulars and plan may be obtained at the principal hotels in the neighbourhood; at the Guildhall Coffee House, E.C.; and (with orders to view) of Messrs. Daniel Smith, Son, & Oakley, Land-agents and Surveyors, 10, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall.

Berks.—Very valuable and attractive Freehold Building Land, close the Grand Stand on Ascot Race-course, and within five minutes' walk of the Ascot Station on the Staines and Wokingham Railway.

MESSRS. DANIEL SMITH, SON, & OAKLEY have received instructions to offer for SALE by AUCTION, at the Guildhall Coffee House, Gresham-street, E.C., on THURSDAY, the 27th day of OCTOBER at 12 o'clock, 22½ acres of exceedingly valuable FREEHOLD LAND, most admirably adapted for building operations, in the above charming and favourite locality. The estate is situate in the parish of Sunninghill, on the high road from Bracknell to Sunninghill Wells and Egham, to which it has a considerable frontage. It consists of high ground, at present covered with firs in full growth, sloping to the south, with a dry, gravelly soil, but which is favourable for the production of luxuriant shrubs. Its rare situation and well-known salubrity render the property a tempting site for the erection of a mansion, or of more than one residence of a superior order, and it presents an opportunity for speculative investments seldom to be met with. Particulars and plan may be obtained of Messrs. Edward & Henry Tylee, solicitors, No. 14, Essex-street, Strand; and of Messrs. Daniel Smith, Son, & Oakley, Land agents and Surveyors, 10, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, S.W.

Kent.—In the beautiful vicinity of Beckenham. An important and very valuable Freehold Residential and Building Property, known as the Eden Park Estate, comprising an elegant Mansion, surrounded by a rich park of 130 acres, magnificently timbered, the domain altogether embracing within a ring fence upwards of 270 acres, presenting most valuable building features in an extremely favourite district, commanding extensive views of the surrounding beautiful neighbourhood. The Estate is situate about one mile from the important railway station known as “Beckenham Junction,” which is distant from the east or west of the Metropolis about half an hour's ride by the London, Chatham, and Dover, London, Brighton, and South Coast, Mid-Kent, and Crystal Palace Railways, from the London-bridge, Farringdon-street, Charing-cross, and Victoria Stations, consequently connected with the entire railway system of England. It is also within two and a half miles of the Crystal Palace and grounds, and is in every respect as well adapted for a first-class building speculation as any Estate in the neighbourhood of London. Possession of the whole may be had in a few months.

MESSRS. DANIEL SMITH, SON, & OAKLEY have received instructions to offer for SALE by AUCTION, at the Guildhall Coffee House, Gresham-street, E.C., on THURSDAY, the 27th day of OCTOBER, at 12 o'clock, in One Lot, the above singularly choice and very valuable FREEHOLD RESIDENTIAL or BUILDING ESTATE, land-tax redeemed. It comprises a Mansion of an imposing elevation, in the Grecian style of architecture, with a noble portico and pediment supported by stone pillars of the Ionic order, and contains a spacious and lofty entrance-hall, which conducts to a handsome dining-room, 34ft. 6in. by 25ft., with ornamental ceiling and cornice supported by bold pillars; a ditto drawing-room, 26ft. by 33ft. 9in., with ornamental ceiling and cornice, embayed French windows, and handsome pillar supports; a music-room, 23ft. by 14ft., library, lady's boudoir, bath-room, fitted, and eight principal sleeping-apartments, averaging about 18ft. by 15 ft. (some being considerably larger), with two dressing-rooms and seven secondary bed-rooms, with other useful rooms, and ample domestic offices, suited to the residence of a family of distinction. Adjoining the mansion, on the south side, is an ornamental conservatory, with an entrance from the boudoir, hothouses, productive kitchen-gardens, about 3½ acres in extent, stocked with choice fruit-trees; detached stabling and coach-houses, opening into a courtyard screened from view from the mansion. Placed in a commanding situation, on the side of a hill gently sloping to the south, it opens upon rich lawns and parterres adorned with stately cedars, with a broad terrace-walk of excellent turf, disclosing a delightful expanse of charming scenery, with the Crystal Palace and grounds in the distance. The mansion is surrounded by a rich park of 130 acres, magnificently timbered, intersected by carriage-drives, with three entrance-lodges, in unison with the mansion. The total area of the Estate is 272a. 2r. 11p. The most important feature, however, connected with this exceedingly valuable Property, is the extreme facility it presents for first-class building purposes. To an enterprising capitalist, a building society, or a private company, it offers an unusual opportunity for safe investment, as by the judicious formation of new roads, thus developing the building capabilities of the Estate, such an enterprise cannot fail to be crowned with success and large profit, there being sites adapted to every description of residence. Particulars, with plan and a view of the mansion, may be obtained upon application to Messrs. Beale & Marigold, 30, Waterloo-street, Birmingham, and 10, Park-street, Westminster, S.W.; and of Messrs. Daniel Smith, Son, & Oakley, Land-agents and Surveyors, 10, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, S.W.

Hampshire, on the borders of Surrey and Sussex.—A choice Freehold Estate, known as the Temple Estate, in the parish of Selborne, rendered famous by White's “Natural History of Selborne,” within about four miles of the Liss, five of the Alton and Liphook, and eight miles of the Petersfield Stations, on the direct Portsmouth railway, consisting of about 993 acres of superior hop, arable, pasture, and wood lands, divided into farms, and occupied by responsible tenants, producing an annual rental of £1,100, exclusive of manorial rights and allotments. It is bounded on the west by the beautiful Hanger-wood, on the south-east and west by the Sussex Downs, and on the east by the Royal forest of Woolmer. Although there is no mansion at present, the Estate possesses many capital sites, commanding lovely views, suitable for the erection of a shooting-box or a gentleman's residence.

MESSRS. DANIEL SMITH, SON, & OAKLEY have received instructions from the Proprietor to **SELL** by AUCTION, at the Guildhall Coffee House, Gresham-street, E.C., on THURSDAY, the 27th day of OCTOBER, at 12 o'clock, the above highly-desirable PROPERTY, containing 993a. 0r. 16p., of which 103a. 3r. 11p. are good pasture land, 64a. 3r. 39p. capital productive hop grounds, and 574a. 3r. 35p. arable land, divided into the following farms, with excellent homesteads:—Ketcher's Farm and part of Temple Farm, with 351a. 3r. 37p. of good arable, pasture, and hop lands, lying well together, with four sets of premises, three cottages, hop-drying kilns, and a substantial farmhouse, let to Mr. Brumwich, a yearly tenant, at £515. 18s. 10d. per annum; part of Temple Farm and Evelyn Farm, containing 363a. 2r. 13p. arable, hop, and pasture land, with three sets of premises, four cottages, and excellent farmhouse, let to Mr. Dudley, a yearly tenant, for £352. 10s. 8d.; 28a. 0r. 35p. of small holdings and allotments, let to various tenants, at rentals amounting to £34. 5s. per annum. Also 245a. 1r. 1p. of wood lands and enclosures (in hand) interspersed about the estate, which furnish capital covert shooting. The Hampshire and Hambledon foxhounds are within easy distance. The whole forms a most desirable property, either for investment or occupation. The soil of the larger portion of the estate is very productive, and eminently suited for the culture of hops, producing a variety known as Country Farnhams, of a very high quality, and altogether the entirety will command a large income, and afford every enjoyable country pursuit in one of the most picturesque and agreeable neighbourhoods in the south of England. Particulars, with Plans, are being prepared, and may shortly be had of Messrs. Wing & DuCane, Solicitors, 1, Gray's-inn-square, W.C.; at the principal hotels in Alton, Petersfield, & Midhurst; at the Guildhall Coffee-house, Gresham-street, E.C.; and of Messrs. Daniel Smith, Son, & Oakley, Land-agents and Surveyors, 10, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall.

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MESSRS. DANIEL SMITH, SON, & OAKLEY have received instructions to offer for SALE by AUCTION, at the Reindeer Hotel, Doncaster, in the County of York, on FRIDAY, the 28th day of OCTOBER, at 3 o'clock precisely, the above valuable FREEHOLD ESTATE, situate in the parish of Wroth, in the county of Lincoln, and Misson and Finningley, in the county of Nottingham, all lying within the operation and benefit of the Hatfield Chase Warring and Improvement Act, and let to yearly tenants, in the following Eight Lots:—Lot 1. A compact and valuable Farm, known as “Bull Hassacks,” comprising a comfortable spacious farmhouse and capital farm premises, together with 300a. 0r. 3p. of useful and improvable land, bounded on the east and west sides by public roads, let to Mr. R. Hickson at £290. 15s. per annum. Lot 2. Two cables of Freehold Land, called “Crayke's Hundreds,” on the south side of Lot 1, and adjoining the public road, containing 115a. 2r. 12p., let to Mr. Hickson at £130 per annum. Lot 3. A cable of Freehold Land, called “Simpson's Hundreds,” containing 103a. 2r. 31p., let to various tenants at rents amounting to £90. 7s. It is bounded on the east and west sides by roads, and on the north by Lot 4. Lot 4. A cable of Freehold Land, lying between Lots 2 and 3, containing 94a. 3r. 15p., let to various tenants at rents amounting to £73. 14s. 6d. Lot 5. A desirable Freehold Farm, called “Misson Springs,” situate a short distance south of the road from Doncaster to the Isle of Oxholme, comprising a comfortable farmhouse, with excellent farm-buildings, &c., and 138a. 2r. 2p. of useful arable and grass land. The whole forms one square block, and is let to Mr. Francis Wigglesworth, at £160. Lot 6. A Freehold Farm, known as “The Fifties,” or “Peat and Ling Carrs,” containing 116a. 0r. 14p., let to various tenants at rents amounting to £39. 4s. Lot 7. Two Closes of Freehold Land, called “High Willows” or “Birds' Level,” containing 17a. 0r. 5p., on the banks of the old river Don, let to two tenants at rents amounting to £37. Lot 8. Six Enclosures of Freehold Land, forming part of a farm called “Nine Scores,” containing 53a. 0r. 29p. Particulars, with plan, may be had of E. M. Dimonock, Esq., Solicitor, Fairlawn, Sand-Rock-road, Tunbridge Wells; of G. D. Simpson, Esq., Land-agent, Lovell, near Doncaster; of T. T. Pearson, Esq., Solicitor, Crowle, near Bawtry; of H. Liversidge, Esq., Solicitor, Winterton, Lincolnshire; at the place of Sale; and of Messrs. Daniel Smith, Son, & Oakley, Land-agents, &c., 10, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, S.W.

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- " B.—Publishers' Libraries, Series, &c.
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
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